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NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW

AND

MISCELLANEOUS JOURNAL.

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VOLUME SECOND.

BOSTON:

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY WELLS AND LILLY,
Court-Street.

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NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW

AND

MISCELLANEOUS JOURNAL.

CITY OF BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY

No. IV.

NOVEMBER, 1815.

A description of the English province of Carolana, by the Spaniards called Florida, and by the French La Louisiane. As also of the great and famous river Meschasebe or Mississipi, the five vast navigable Lakes of fresh water, and the parts adjacent. Together with an account of the commodities of the growth and production of the said Province. And a preface containing some considerations on the consequences of the French making settlements there. By Daniel Coxe, Esq. London, printed for B. Cowse, at the Rose and Crown in St. Paul's Churchyard, 1722, 8vo. pp. 180, with a map.

This is a crude performance, drawn up from various journals and voyages, to impress the publick with the great importance of the region described, and to make them jealous of its occupation by the French. Under this name of *Carolana*, was comprehended the present State of Georgia, the two Floridas, and Louisiana; and this whole territory was claimed by Dr. Coxe, the father of the author, as proprietor of it under the crown. In the appendix is given a document, dated Whitehall, December 21st, 1690, and signed by seven members of the Privy Council and law

officers, in which having examined the claim by order of the ministry, they report to the king as their opinion, that Dr. Coxe is entitled to this province! Probably there is no other instance on record of any private individual pretending to such an extensive property.

Recherches philosophiques sur les Americains, ou memoires interressants pour servir à l'histoire de l'espece humaine. Par M. de Pau. Nouvelle edition, augmentée d'un dissertation critique par Dom. Pernety, et de la defense de l'auteur des recherches contre cette dissertation. Studio disposta fideli. à Berlin, 1774, 3 *vols.* 12*mo. pp.* 916.

Examen des recherches philosophiques sur l'Amerique et les Americains, et de la defense de cet ouvrage, a Berlin, 1771, 2 *vols.* 12 *mo. pp.* 921.

This work of M. de Pau on the aborigines of the American continent, excited much attention at a time when the character of the Indians was imperfectly known; and it was subject to all the exaggeration which the spirit of party can produce, denied by one side as being absolutely brutal and vicious, and extolled by the other as possessing every virtue. The question is now well understood, and their virtues and vices fairly appreciated. Historians and philosophers will hereafter be able to speak of this species of men with accuracy, when the race shall have become extinct, which will probably happen at no very distant period.

M. de Pau imagined a very absurd theory, which he does not clearly explain; but the basis of it seems to be, that the continent of America was recently recovered from the waters—that its climate was pestilential—its productions diminutive and feeble in every thing but noxious plants, insects and reptiles, which were produced in frightful abundance by the stagnant waters, and sour, rank juices of nature in an unripe state. To support this strange theory, he uniformly asserts, that every European production speedily deteriorated; plants, animals and men were all stunted or destroyed, and the latter both morally and physically degraded. The savages he considers infinitely below every other species of men, even Tartars, Laplanders, Hottentots, or Negroes; and the descendants of Europe-

ans as not much superiour to them.—'To call a Spaniard, 'born in America, an American, is so cruel an insult to 'him, that you may be sure beforehand, that he will never 'pardon the person who dares make him such a reproach: 'the Portugese, French and English Creoles, consider 'themselves equally offended if they are called Americans: 'so much do they hold themselves superiour to men of 'that race, and indeed they are so in many respects, but 'not so much as they imagine.'

A curious instance of his rashness in denying any fact that makes against his theory, and positive manner of assuring his readers that nothing of the kind existed, occurs in regard to the famous hieroglyphical inscription at Dighton, in Massachusetts.—'Permit me to undeceive you further 'about another fact,* equally false, to which the memoir of 'the French academician has given rise: it has been pub-'lished throughout Europe, that there had been found in 'the centre of New-England, a stone which contained an 'inscription in Thibetian characters, which is, as you know, 'the country where the Grand Lama resides. After hav-'ing procured all the information possible, about this pre-'tended monument, I can boldly assure you, that no in-'scription in any character whatever has ever been dis-'covered in the whole extent of America, from the country 'of the Esquimaux to the extremity of Terra del Fuego. 'This New-England rock is like the medal of Julius Cae-'sar, which was said to have been dug up among the sav-'ages called Cesareans, in the neighbourhood of Patagonia. 'From which you may judge to what degree they have 'dared to assert the most incredible things, to support the 'most absurd systems.'

This work of De Pau's discovers a good deal of research into the history of different nations, but the most perverse use is made of his materials, and his ignorance of the real character of the Indians is most profound. The work is written in a style of petulance and sarcasm, often adopted by those who have been called philosophers in modern times, though nothing can be more opposed to the true spirit of philosophy.

Dom. Pernety, a Benedictine, who had been in one or two provinces of South America, attacked De Pau, in

* The other was the voyage of the Grand Lama to America.

a critical dissertation read to the Academy of Berlin. This dissertation, however, is declamatory, and elevates the character of the savages too highly : it is in the opposite extreme to De Pau. To this the latter replied, chapter by chapter, not in a very fair way, often misquoting his antagonist, and dealing his sarcasms unsparingly. This brought out a rejoinder from Dom. Pernety, in two volumes, much more ably written than his first work, in which he exposes the blunders and unfair conduct of De Pau. One of the points in dispute between them, is the existence of the giants of Magellan, or Patagonians ; and it is strange that on this topick there should have been so much contradiction and even uncertainty. Nothing seems more incredible, and yet it is hard to account for the particular relations of so many persons of different nations, who in the course of one or two centuries, visited that country, and insisted upon having seen them, and been among them for days together.

De l'Amerique et des Americains, ou observations curieuses du Philosophe La Douceur, qui a parcoura cet Hémisphee pendant la dernierederuerre, en faisant le noble metier de tuer les hommes sans les manger. A Berlin, 1772, 12*mo. pp.* 116.

The anonymous author of this little work, who, according to the title, had been 'employed in the noble trade of killing men, without eating them,' says, that he has traversed North and part of South America, visited the West India Islands, gone over part of the Coast of Africa, visited China, a part of India, and travelled by land from the Persian Gulf to Constantinople, all in the course of five years. This personal knowledge of so many barbarous or half civilized nations, gives him, as he asserts, a considerable advantage in forming a judgment on the character of the American Indians, whom it is his object to defend against the statements of De Pau. It is written in a lively manner, and evidently by an eye witness of the Indian mode of living. Though in French, judging from some peculiar words, the author was probably a German officer. The two concluding paragraphs will give an idea of his manner, though the point at the close cannot be exactly rendered in English.

'The savages think as they please; they eat when they 'are hungry; they sleep when they are sleepy; they walk 'about when they choose; they do not torment themselves 'about the future, and their labours are their amusements. 'It is true that they have the villainous custom of some-'times eating their prisoners.

'This is the life of a hog, it will be said; this mode of 'living cannot however be so bad as it may be supposed to 'be, since three fourths of our noblemen live in the same 'manner; the difference between them and the savages is, 'that instead, like the latter, of eating their prisoners, they 'often consume their creditors.'

An historical journal of the campaigns in North America for the years 1757, 1758, 1759 and 1760, containing the most remarkable occurrences of that period, particularly the two sieges of Quebec, &c. &c. the orders of the Admirals and general officers, description of countries where the author has served, with their forts and garrisons: their climates, soil, produce, and a regular diary of the weather. As also several manifestoes, a mandate of the late Bishop of Canada, the French orders and dispositions for the defence of the Colony, &c. &c. by Captain John Knox, dedicated by permission to Lieutenant General Sir Jeffery Amherst. London, 1769. Two volumes, 4to. pp. 870. with portraits of Generals Amherst and Wolfe.

These are two heavy tedious volumes. The first one particularly, being principally taken up with a journal of his garrison residence in Nova-Scotia and New-Brunswick, where he was locked up in small forts, from which they could not venture a mile, without risk of attack from the Acadians and savages. The war between the English and French in this quarter, seems to have been carried on by both parties with the utmost barbarity. It had all the horrid features of Indian warfare, plundering, burning, and scalping. The second volume, which narrates the operations before Quebec, the battle in which Wolfe and Montcalm lost their lives, the capture of the city, and the final capitulation of the Marquis de Vaudreuil, and surrender of the Canadas to General Amherst, is interesting in spite of the author.

There are two anecdotes of New-England sailors that are worth transcribing. On their passage from Europe, and being separated from the fleet on the coast of Nova-Scotia, they fell in with a Massachusetts privateer, which at first alarmed them very much, as several prisoners were on the 'deck, dressed in bag wigs and sharp cocked hats,' which had been taken out of a French vessel that the privateer had captured a few days before. The captain offered to pilot them into Halifax, and for this purpose the two vessels kept together.—'In the afternoon we happily escaped run-'ning foul of the privateer by the carelessness of his and 'our helmsmen: the American was immensely terrified, 'and instead of exerting himself as a British tar would do 'in like imminent danger, fell upon his knees to pray: 'whereupon the captain of our ship was obliged to give di-'rections with his speaking trumpet, for the guidance of 'both ships, till at length by exerting the greatest activity, 'we cleared him; and this accident gave the New-England 'man such a dislike to our company, that he bore away and 'left us. Vol. 1. p. 12.

—'The Endeavour narrowly escaped being dashed to 'pieces against a cliff on the south side of the Bay, which by 'the darkness of the morning and the haziness of the wea-'ther, they did not discover, until the vessel's bowsprit 'struck against the rock; it was not however broke, though it 'was curved; this was early on the 18th, the wind blowing hard at north, with a mountainous sea. The poor New-England seamen, according to their custom, were going to prayers, and ready to resign themselves to Providence; 'but our soldiers, by the example of their officers, exerted 'themselves very spiritedly and cleared her off.' p. 124.—*Tempora mutantur.* New-England seamen now put their shoulders to the wheel and pray to Jupiter afterwards. It is impossible to read any English work on the subject of America in former times, without hailing most devoutly the glorious epoch, that redeemed us from colonial degradation.

Praise of his own countrymen and abuse of the enemy, constantly occur in the most vulgar style and manner. There is not a single description worth citing, unless the following may be considered an exception. 'A soldier of the High-'landers, was this day killed by lightning, and two others 'were much scorched. The rains in the summer season

'are exceedingly heavy, the thunder inconceivably loud, 'and the lightning most beautifully dreadful.' Vol. 2, p. 344. The work contains all the general orders, proclamations, &c. and has many materials for the history of the memorable campaigns of 1759 and 1760.

A concise account of North America: containing a description of the several British Colonies on that continent, including the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, &c. as to their situation, extent, climate, soil, produce, rise, governments, religion, present boundaries, and the number of inhabitants supposed to be in each. Also of the interior or westerly parts of the country, upon the rivers St. Laurence, the Mississipi, Christino and the great lakes. To which is subjoined, an account of the several nations and tribes of Indians, residing in those parts, as to their customs, manners, government, numbers, &c. containing many useful and entertaining facts never before treated of. By Major Robert Rogers. London, 1765, 8vo. pp. 264.

This is the work of an officer, who served in, and travelled over many parts of the extensive regions that he has attempted to describe. It is a compendious, and for the period when it was written, not inaccurate account, of the British colonies. The title-page is a pompous one, but the work is rather a meagre abstract of the history of the Atlantick States, and a brief account of the country bordering on the great lakes and rivers of the west. 'The entertaining facts never before treated of,' are hard to be discovered; perhaps the following conjecture respecting the fogs of Newfoundland may be classed under this head, and as it was adopted by captain Knox, the author of the preceding work, to account for the fogs of Nova-Scotia, it was probably the received theory in military circles at that period.— 'These coasts are observed to be extremely subject to 'fogs, occasioned by the vapours, which are exhaled from 'the lakes, swamps and bogs, with which the island abounds, 'as is generally supposed: but perhaps is more owing to 'the vast shoals of fish and sea animals which frequent 'these coasts, whose breath, warmth, and motion, occasion 'vapours to arise from the sea: hence I imagine it is, that,

'notwithstanding the almost perpetual fogs here, the air is 'wholesome and agreeable to most constitutions, which 'would hardly be the case if they sprung from bogs, 'swamps, and fresh water lakes.' p. 8. The quantity of knowledge in the world certainly increases, and probably at this time a sergeant-major would hardly attribute the fogs of Newfoundland, to the breathings and gambols of cod fish and porpoises.

The author discovers some warmth in his relation of the practices of Rhode-Island; and this, with the conjecture just quoted, are the only entertaining parts of his work.— 'The form of government here is in all respects the same 'as in the colony of Connecticut. They are not however 'so scrupulous in keeping up to the terms of their charter, 'often dispensing with it in some pretty essential points, 'and taking liberties, not only detrimental to the other pro- 'vinces, but even to the nation; especially in times of war, 'by carrying on an illicit trade with the enemy, and 'supplying them with the most material articles. This 'they have certainly done with impunity, to my certain 'knowledge, in the course of the late war, when many 'scores of vessels went loaded with beef, pork, flour, &c. 'under the pretext of flags, which for a certain considera- 'tion could always be procured from their governor; when 'at the same time perhaps, they carried not more than one 'or two French prisoners, dividing the crew of one French 'merchantman they had taken, among a whole fleet of flags 'of truce, laden with articles more welcome to the enemy, 'than all the prisoners with the ships and cargo they took 'from them. Nor can it be greatly wondered at, that their 'governor should fall in with so clandestine a method for 'the procurement of a livelihood; when it is considered 'that they allow him but fifty or sixty dollars a year for his 'maintenance: besides, as he is annually elected, so there 'are always two or more, that are competitors for the gov- 'ernment; and generally, he that distributes the most cash, 'and gives the best entertainment, let him be merchant, 'farmer, tradesman, or what he will, is the man who obtains 'a majority of votes, which fixes him in the chair, (death 'only excepted) for that year. These election expenses 'generally run high, as each candidate endeavours to excel 'his competitor, and, if all put together, would amount to

'a reasonable maintenance, and must be refunded some way 'or other during his reign, who happens to be elected, and 'provision made to act the same part over again next year.' The author asserts these facts on his own knowledge, but supposing some of them to be exaggerated, this inference at least may be drawn, that incompetent salaries are impolitick and degrading.

An account of the countries adjoining Hudson's Bay in the north-west part of America; containing a description of their lakes and rivers, the nature of the soil and climates, their methods of commerce, of shewing the benefit to be made by settling Colonies, and opening a trade in these parts; whereby the French will be deprived in a great measure of their traffick in furs, and the communication between Canada and the Mississipi cut off. With an abstract of Capt. Middleton's journal, and observations on his behaviour during his voyage and since his return. To which are added; I. a letter from Bartholomew da Fonte, Vice Admiral of Peru and Mexico, giving an account of his voyage from Lima in Peru, to prevent or seize upon any ships that should attempt to find a north-west passage to the South Sea. II. An abstract of all the discoveries which have been published of the Islands and countries in and adjoining to the great Western Ocean, between America, India and China, &c. pointing out the advantages that may be made, if a short passage should be found through Hudson's streight to that ocean. III. The Hudson Bay Company's Charter. IV. The standard of trade in those parts of America, with an account of the exports and profits made annually by the Hudson's Bay Company. V. Vocabularies of the languages of several Indian nations adjoining to Hudson's Bay. The whole intended to shew the great probability of a north-west passage, so long desired, and which, if discovered, would be of the highest advantages to these kingdoms. By Arthur Dobbs, Esq. London, printed 1744, *4to. pp.* 211, *with a map.*

An account of six years residence in Hudson's Bay, from 1730 *to* 1736, *and from* 1744 *to* 1747, *by Joseph Robson, late surveyor and supervisor of buildings to the*

Hudson's Bay Company. Containing a variety of facts, observations and discoveries, tending to shew, I. The vast importance of the countries about Hudson's Bay to Great Britain, on account of the extensive improvements that may be made there, in many beneficial articles of commerce, particularly in the furs, and in the whale and seal fisheries, and II. The interested views of the Hudson's Bay Company, and the absolute necessity of laying open the trade, and making it the object of national encouragement, as the only method of keeping it out of the hands of the French. To which is added, an Appendix; containing, I. A short history of the discovery of Hudson's Bay, and of the proceedings of the English there, since the grant of the Hudson's Bay charter; together with remarks on the papers and evidence, produced by that company before the committee of the Honourable House of Commons, in the year 1749. *II. An estimate of the expense of building the stone fort, called the Prince of Wales's Fort, at the entrance of Churchill river. III. The soundings of Nelson river. IV. A survey of the course of Nelson river. V. A survey of Seal and Gillam's Island, and VI. A journal of the winds and tides at Churchill river, for part of the years* 1746 *and* 1747. *The whole illustrated by a draught of Nelson and Haye's rivers; a draught of Churchill river, and plans of York fort and Prince of Wales's fort. London,* 1752, 8*vo. pp.* 175.

The present state of Hudson's Bay, containing a full description of the settlement and the adjacent country; and likewise of the fur trade, with hints for its improvement, &c. to which are added, remarks and observations made in the inland parts, during a residence of nearly four years; a specimen of five Indian languages and a journal of a journey from Montreal to New-York. By Edward Umfreville, eleven years in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company, and four years in the Canada fur trade. London, 1790, 8*vo. pp.* 230.

These three works resemble each other in two points, though written at different periods: in enmity to the Hudson's Bay Company, and in being very uninteresting. The monopoly of that company seems quiet and durable. The

fur trade of the north, is now principally in the hands of the Canada merchants; but, if the monopoly of the Company did not interfere, more advantage might be derived from some branches of the fisheries in Hudson's Bay. The stock of the Company is in the hands of a very few individuals, who conduct their affairs unnoticed by the publick, and who lock up the vast and dreary regions included in their charter, making no settlements, and only sending about 700 tons of shipping, one voyage annually. The long title pages of the two first, are a complete table of contents. A great part of them is taken up with shewing the probability of a north-west passage, a question that has since been fully decided in the negative.

The only passages of interest in Umfreville's book, are a description of a most horrible massacre of the wretched Esquimaux, by a party of northern Indians whom he accompanied; and a very singular and cruel adventure that befel three of their factory men, who were sent out on an excursion to kill game. In crossing a river, they passed over upon the ice, and when at a long distance from the shore, they found themselves to be on a floating field of it. This drifted with the tide out of the mouth of the river into the bay, the flood tide brought it back, but it did not reach the shore; the ebb carried it out again; and in this manner they were floated about for a week, and this in the month of January, on the shores of Hudson's Bay. Two of them perished, the third escaped to the shore on the eighth day, the ice having fortunately grounded on the side of the river. He reached the fort and survived, though with the loss of some of his limbs.

In Mr. Dobbs' work there is a mysterious story, which was new to me, but which may perhaps have been investigated by others. It is in the letter of Admiral da Fonte, giving an abstract of his voyage, made by order of the king of Spain, to intercept adventurers, who, after the example of Hudson, were endeavouring to find a north-west passage. He sailed from Lima in 1640.—'The 17th (of July) they 'came to an Indian town, and the Indians told their inter-'preter, Mr. Parmentiers, that a little way from them lay a 'great ship, where there had never been one before: they 'sailed to them and found only one man advanced in years, 'and a youth; the man was the greatest man in the mechani-

'cal parts of the mathematicks he had ever met with. The 'admiral's second mate was an Englishman, an excellent 'seaman, as was his gunner who had been taken prisoner 'in Campeachy, as well as the master's son. They told 'him the ship was of New-England, from a town called Bos- 'ton. The owner and the whole ship's company came on 'board the 30th, and the navigator of the ship, Captain Shap- 'ley, told him his owner was a fine gentleman, and Major 'General of the largest colony in New-England, called Mas- 'sachusetts; so he received him like a gentleman, and told 'him, his commission was to make prize of any people seek- 'ing a north-west or west passage into the South Sea, but he 'would look upon them as merchants, trading with the 'natives for beavers, otter and other furs and skins, and so 'for a small present of provisions he had no need of, he 'gave him his diamond ring which cost him 1200 pieces of 'eight (which the modest gentleman received with diffi- 'culty) and having given the brave Captain Shapley for 'his fine charts and journals 1000 pieces of eight, and the 'owner of the ship Senor Gibbons a quarter cask of good 'Peruan wine, and the ten seamen each twenty pieces of 'eight, the 6th of August with as much wind as they could 'fly before, and a current they arrived at the first fall of the 'river Parmentiers.' p. 127. Mr. Dobbs in concluding his comments on Da Fonte's letter, makes the following remarks on this strange Boston ship. 'In two days from 'thence he (the Spanish Admiral) came to an Indian town, 'probably about lat. 60, near which the Boston ship lay; 'so that it may be imagined that the Boston ship had passed 'into some of the openings near Whale Cove, and got to 'lat. 60. or perhaps 59, and was trading for furs, and the 'ship might have been afterwards lost or surprised by the 'Esquimaux upon her return, having but twelve or thir- 'teen hands on board, since no account of this voyage 'was ever transmitted from Boston. Upon inquiry made by 'order of Sir Charles Wager, whether any of the name of 'Shapley, which was the master's name, lived at that time 'in Boston, it appeared from some writings that some of 'that name then lived in Boston, which adds to the weight 'of Da Fonte's letter.' It would indeed be a curious circumstance if a Boston ship had visited the western shore of America in 1640.

From Robson's book I can find only one passage worth transcribing, and that merely to relate a ludicrous situation.

'While I was at Churchill river, I went out one afternoon with my gun towards Esquimaux point, and among some large stones that lie thereabout, discovered an enormous bear. Not being above a quarter of a mile distant from the house, I was not much alarmed at the sight of this animal, but crept forwards with a design to shoot him. By this time he had winded me, and was making towards me, I suppose with the expectation of meeting with a good prey; for presently after, when I raised myself behind a stone to look for him, he was reared on the other side to look for me. The surprise was mutual, depriving both of the power of hurting each other; for he, turning suddenly on his hind feet, made off with great precipitation; and I having lost my recollection, did not think of firing till he was out of my reach.'

An Address delivered to the Phi Beta Kappa Society, at their anniversary meeting at Cambridge. By William Tudor, *junior.*

I feel some apology to be necessary, in appearing before you, gentlemen, on the present anniversary, out of the common routine of succession. When your committee honoured me with their choice, I could not forget that I had not fulfilled a similar duty, a few years since; and my respect for the society made me embrace their second proposal almost without hesitation, to atone as far as it would be in my power, for a previous interruption in my engagements.

In accepting this invitation I was aware of the embarrassment, that would attend the selection of a topick for this address. To the anxiety about the mode of treating a subject, is added a responsibility for its choice. Placed amid the whole circle of literature, the unlimited nature of the prospect, and unrestricted course that is open, creates a feeling of vagueness and confusion, which bewilders the mind; whatever path be preferred, is entered with hesitation, if new, it may lead only to uninteresting objects, and if beaten, how can it be hoped, that a point of view, a species of fruit, or even a single flower will be found, that has not already been selected by those who have preceded?

In reflecting on this choice, a complaint that has been often urged, occurred to recollection. It has been said that one reason why we have not produced more good poems, was owing to the want of subjects, and though

> The poet's eye in a fine phrensy rolling,
> Glances from Heaven to earth, from earth to Heaven,

and makes the universe his domain, yet that the appropriate themes of other countries had been exhausted by their own poets, and that none existed in ours. Thinking this opinion to be unfounded, the attempt to prove the latter part of it to be so, may furnish a theme for this discourse, during the few moments, that I can presume to solicit your attention.

The early history of illustrious nations, has been the source of the great master pieces of poetry: the fabulous ages of Greece are the foundation of the Illiad and Odyssey, and the same period gave Virgil his hero for the Æneid. Many modern epicks have taken the heroes of the earlier periods, and revolutions of modern times. The American Revolution may some centuries hence, become a fit and fruitful subject for an heroick poem; when ages will have consecrated its principles, and all remembrance of party feuds and passions, shall have been obliterated—when the inferiour actors and events will have been levelled by time, and a few memorable actions and immortal names shall remain, the only monuments, to engage and concentrate the admiration of a remote posterity.

From the close of the 16th to the middle of the 18th century many most interesting events took place on this continent, and circumstances have concurred with time in casting a shade of obscurity resembling that of antiquity, over the transactions of that period; while, by the great revolutions which have since happened, the connexion between those days and our own is interrupted, and they are so disconnected with the present era, that no passionate feeling is blended with their consideration; they are now exclusively the domain of history and poetry. All the communities then standing have passed away, or exist under new relations. The remarkable Confederacy of Indian tribes under the name of the five nations is extinct. The foundations of the French Empire in America

have been torn up, the possessions that were once French are now held by the British, and the English colonies have become an independent nation. All these changes have insulated this portion of history, and divested it of the irritation attendant on recent political affairs.

The region in which these occurrences took place, abounds with grand and beautiful scenery, possessing some peculiar features. The numerous waterfalls, the enchanting beauty of Lake George and its pellucid flood, of Lake Champlain, and the lesser lakes, afford many objects of the most picturesque character; while the inland seas from Superiour to Ontario, and that astounding cataract, whose roar would hardly be increased by the united murmurs of all the cascades of Europe, are calculated to inspire vast and sublime conceptions. The effects too of our climate composed of a Siberian winter and an Italian summer, furnish peculiar and new objects for description. The circumstances of remote regions are here blended, and strikingly opposite appearances witnessed in the same spot, at different seasons of the year—In our winters, we have the sun at the same altitude as in Italy, shining on an unlimited surface of snow, which can only be found in the higher latitudes of Europe, where the sun in the winter rises little above the horizon. The dazzling brilliance of a winter's day, and a moon-light night, when the utmost splendour of the sky is reflected from a surface of spotless white, attended with the most excessive cold, is peculiar to the northern part of the United States. What too can surpass the celestial purity and transparency of the atmosphere in a fine autumnal day, when our vision and our thoughts seem carried 'to the third heaven;' the gorgeous magnificence of their close, when the sun sinks from our view, surrounded with varied masses of clouds, fringed with gold and purple, and reflecting in evanescent tints, all the hues of the rainbow.*

* There is no climate in the world that presents more remarkable contrasts than that of the middle and northern parts of the United States. Boston, for instance, is in the same latitude with Rome, the cold in winter is occasionally as intense, and the snow as deep as at Stockholm and St. Petersburg; but the sun hardly gleams on them in the winter months, while here his rays are shed from the same altitude as in Italy, and interrupts during the day that severity of cold, induced

A most remarkable feature in the landscape at this same season, and which those who see it for the first time must behold with astonishment, is the singular appearance of the woods; where all the hues of the most lively flowers, the vivid colours of tulips, are given to the trees of the forest,

by the prevalence of the winds in the western quarter, coming to us over a continent of such vast extent covered with dense forests which shadow the earth, and prevent the sun from warming and drying its surface. Our climate affords some of the worst, and some of the finest weather that can be felt in any part of the world. The spring generally is the most capricious and disagreeable, the autumn the mellowest and most serene. Persons who are in the habit of remarking the appearance of the atmosphere, cannot fail of admiring the extreme beauty of the sky at most seasons of the year. To witness the same effects, it is necessary in Europe to get into the same latitudes. The climate of England, modified by an insular situation, and the wide spread cultivation of its surface, is peculiarly temperate, but constantly vapoury and humid. France and Germany colder and warmer than England, are still more temperate than the United States; it is necessary to cross the Alps, to find the same bright and beautiful atmosphere that surrounds us. In England it is seldom that any distant object can be seen distinctly, and there is always such a degree of haziness in the air, that even neighbouring objects are never so clearly defined as they are under a purer sky; the artists of the Continent commonly reproach the artists of England with carrying this imitation of nature in their own country, into their representations of the scenery of others, and in their engravings, (the remark was made particularly in criticising that magnificent work, Stuart's Antiquities of Athens,) giving the misty, indistinct outline, which they were accustomed to, and which is not without its beauties, but which was entirely foreign to the appearance of objects in Greece. This same effect of great distinctness, which is common to the south of Europe, may very often be seen here, especially in the summer. Any person may judge of this in a clear day, by regarding elevated buildings, looking from the sun, and observing with what sharpness and distinctness their edges and angles are marked, and how bold the relief, and distant the sky recedes. The most careless eye can hardly fail to be struck with the beauty of an evening sky, after sunset, and the appearance of the western horizon, when the darkness has encroached on the eastern. On a summer or autumnal evening, when there are no clouds, as the twilight is advancing, the purity, transparency, brilliancy and harmonious subsiding and blending of the warmer tints from where the sun has set, to the fine *chiaro oscuro* of the opposite point, where the shadows of night are approaching, will afford a few minutes of delightful contemplation to the lover of nature. In contending for this splendour of our atmosphere which, has sometimes been denied it, I am well aware of all its disadvantages, and would gladly take a little less brilliance and a little more comfort; but, as we are fully sensible, and are habitually repining at its inconveniences, it is well to know what compensation may be derived from its beauties. To the poet and the artist it is replete with picturesque effect.

and nature appears in a moment of capricious gayety to have attired the groves in the gaudiest and most fantastick livery. Nothing comparable to this effect can be seen in any part of Europe.*

Many other beauties of inanimate nature might be enumerated, and these just mentioned are only cited, as being

* This singular and beautiful appearance of the forests, is peculiar to this country. It arises partly from the greater variety of trees, and perhaps from the early occurrence of frosts, when the leaves are still vigorous and filled with juices, and which may be decomposed by the cold, so as to produce these vivid colours; when they might merely fade and be partially changed, if their fall was not produced prematurely. The forests in Europe in their autumnal dress, have many shades of brown and yellow intermixed, but, there is nothing equal to the effect produced here. To select, two of our forest trees, for instance, the white walnut and the maple, these trees attaining the height of forty feet and upwards, and the whole foliage of the former of the brightest yellow, and the latter the deepest scarlet. No artist has hitherto ventured to give this appearance in its full effect. There are many features in our forest scenery, that are highly beautiful from their variety and strong contrasts. Europeans who have a knowledge and love of botany always admire them. Most of our trees and plants have been transplanted into the nurseries of Europe, and are much in request for all their ornamental plantations. It is not only the aspect of our forests, but the general aspect of our country, which have both been too much neglected by the American poets, who have written their descriptions more from the study of the classick poets of ancient and modern Europe, than from meditating on the scenes familiar to them. A painter who only makes pictures from copying the ideas and style of the great masters, without animating his manner by a study of nature, may produce correct, but always cold and dry performances. Descriptive poetry, which borrows the fashion of other countries, however classick its allusions, will be languid and spiritless, it will possess no raciness, and can never be rendered interesting. The general physiognomy of the United States is different from that of every country in Europe, its buildings, its cultivation, its natural and artificial objects have many peculiar features. There is no species of cultivation in Europe, not even the vine, except when cultivated on espaliers, or pendant between trees, which is seldom seen, that can compare with a field of Indian corn, next to the sugar cane the richest in appearance of all plants. The care and labour which is bestowed on this grain in the Eastern States, the neatness and beauty of its appearance, form a strong contrast with the too careless and neglected appearance of other fields. This is the most splendid of all the gifts of Ceres, and it is difficult to say, whether it is most pleasing to the eye in its growing state, or at the period of harvest, when the ripened, luxuriant ears, are discovered through their faded covering. It would extend this note too far to notice all the objects, that may be cited as peculiar in some degree to our scenery.

in a degree peculiar. These extensive and variegated forests afford shelter to a variety of animals, beautiful in form and curious in their habits, such among others, are the beaver and the deer; and to birds of most exquisite plumage. The graceful shape and various species of some of the diminutive quadrupeds, the very abundance of some of these animals, and of certain kinds of birds, which almost darken the air in their flight, serve to enrich and animate the scenery. Prominent among objects of this class, is the king of birds, Jove's own imperial Eagle, the sacred emblem of our country: 'Formed by nature for braving the 'severest cold, feeding equally on the produce of the sea 'and of the land, possessing powers of flight capable of out-'stripping even the tempests themselves; unawed by any 'but man; and from the etherial heights to which he soars, 'looking abroad at one glance to an immeasurable expanse 'of forests, fields, lakes and ocean deep below him, he 'appears indifferent to the little localities of change of 'seasons; as in a few minutes he can pass from summer to 'winter, from the lower to the higher regions of the atmo-'sphere, the abode of eternal cold, and from thence descend 'at will to the torrid and arctick zones of the earth.'* In the same territories are found those enormous bones of animals now extinct, that have generated so many fables among the savages, and speculations among philosophers; and those extensive fortifications so buried in obscurity, that even tradition is silent respecting them;—objects which lead to that musing on former times most propitious to poetry.

Such are some of the subordinate subjects that would be fruitful of allusion, and fertile in description to the poet. The human actors on this theatre are still more striking, and their history replete with interest and romantick adventure. The English and French were founding extensive empires here, and their contiguous possessions produced a century of conflicts, which terminated at last, in the exclusive power of the former. European affairs were more than once affected by the disputes of these two nations in the regions of Canada, and the decision of the most important contests on the Old Continent has been produced by the issue of operations in the remote wilds of North America.

* Wilson's Ornithology.

The period also was one of great interest in European annals ; France and England were rivals in glory, both in arts and arms.

Between these powers were interposed the Aborigines, who became the allies of these nations and the most efficient part of their force. Before speaking more particularly of them, it will be necessary to deprecate the prejudices naturally entertained on the subject, from what we now see. The degenerate, miserable remains of the Indian nations, which have dwindled into insignificance and lingered among us, as the tide of civilization has flowed, mere floating deformities on its surface, poor, squalid and enervated with intoxicating liquors, should no more be taken for the representatives of their ancestors, who first met the Europeans on the edge of their boundless forests, severe and untamed as the regions they tenanted, than the Greek slaves, who now tremble at the frown of a petty Turkish tyrant, can be considered the likeness of their immortal progenitors, of those immoveable bands, before whom at Platœa, Thermopylæ and Marathon, the whole Persian empire broke and subsided like the waves of the sea, against the rocks they defended. To form an idea of what they once were, to see them in the energy and originality of their primitive condition, we must now journey a thousand miles. They possessed so many traits in common with some of the nations of antiquity, that they perhaps exhibit the counterpart of what the Greeks were in the heroick ages, and particularly the Spartans during the vigour of their institutions. Their origin has been the source of many theories and conjectures, few of which are more reasonable, than the suggestion of Spencer in his Fairy Queen ; that they are the descendants of the man whom Prometheus animated by stealing fire from Heaven. Whether this race of men could like the Greeks have gradually acquired civilization, or whether they are a distinct species incapable of being tamed, may be uncertain : sudden civilization at least, has been shewn to be impossible ; they diminish and waste before its progress, like snow before the vernal influence. The sublime allegorical painting of Guido,* in which Apollo encircled by the hours, is chasing night and her

* In the Rospigliosi Palace at Rome.

shadows over the surface of the globe, might almost represent the extinction of our savage precursors before the dawn of science and cultivation. The history of these people then is not less interesting, since in a short period they will exist no where else, and even in the next century, the Indian warriour and hunter will perhaps only be found on the shores of the Pacifick ocean.

The virtues and vices of the original inhabitants of America, have been generally exaggerated by their enemies or admirers. It would be as foolish to vindicate the one, as to deny the other; both grew out of their condition: the influence of civilized society destroyed the former and nourished the latter. Their virtues were hospitality, reverence to age, unalterable constancy in friendship, and undaunted fortitude in every species of enterprise and suffering. They lived in a state of proud savage equality, and had no esteem for any merit except that which was derived from superiority in the arts of hunting, war, and eloquence. These were their general characteristicks, but the difference between Indian, was almost as great as among European nations, and the inferiority of some to others was quite as remarkable as that which exists between civilized people.

Among those who were distinguished, few are more eminent, than the confederated tribes, which were first known to us, under the name of the Five Nations. These nations resided originally in the district where now stands Montreal. The Algonquins lived more in the interiour. The former were peaceable in their habits, and subsisted by cultivating the earth; the latter were warlike, and depended on hunting; the two nations were friendly and exchanged their corn and venison. At a certain period, when game was scarce, the Algonquins requested the Five Nations to send them some of their young men, to assist in the increased toil of procuring food. These becoming very expert huntsmen, were murdered by the Algonquin employers out of jealousy and apprehension. When complaint was made of this treacherous cruelty, they only blamed the murderers, and made some slight presents to the injured people, fearless of the resentment of a nation, who subsisted by the effeminate employment, as they esteemed it, of agriculture. The Five Nations determined on revenge, which being discovered by

the Algonquins, they resolved to reduce them to absolute obedience by force. In pursuing this scheme, they chased them from their place of living, and obliged them to seek shelter in the region, between the Hudson and Lakes Erie and Ontario. The Confederacy, goaded by the injustice of their enemies, to relinquish their peaceable employments, gradually acquired a knowledge of war, and courage to face them; and, though the latter aided by the French had the great advantage of the previous use of fire arms, the Five Nations eventually triumphed; and, with the exception of a small number that were driven to the vicinity of Quebec, finally extinguished the Algonquins, one of the most warlike, numerous and politick tribes of North America. Having once acquired the habits and knowledge of war, they extended their dominion with restless ambition, till they had either formed alliances with, or reduced to submission, most of the nations between the St. Lawrence, the sea coast, and the Ohio. The Dutch formed a treaty with them in 1609. The English made their first treaty of alliance with them in 1664, which was continued from time to time and never violated. They had also particular treaties with Massachusetts, New-York, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia.

From this slight sketch of their history, it may be imagined that these nations must have held an important part, in all the contests between the French and English. Indeed, the affairs of the former were more than once brought to the very brink of destruction by them. At a very critical moment, the English withdrew from the contest, by the most positive orders of the Sovereign, which were artfully obtained by the French Ministry, from the bigoted subservience of the Stuarts to the Court of Rome, while, under pretence of religion, the Jesuit Missionaries were promoting the designs of France, in that vast scheme of Colossal aggrandizement, which, with one foot at New Orleans and the other at Quebec, would have bestrode the Empire of North America.

The actions of these people in war, had a strong character of wildness and romance; their preparations for it, and celebrations of triumph were highly picturesque. The solemn councils of their Sachems, the war-dance which preceded their expeditions, like the Pyrrhick Dance of antiquity, was full of terrifick expression. Many of their achievements

were performed by a few or sometimes only one or two individuals. These were savage in their character, and not admitted now in the practice of war among civilized nations; and yet such actions may be rendered highly interesting in poetry. What was the nocturnal excursion of Diomed and Ulysses in the 10th book of the Iliad, in which they slew Rhesus, king of the Thracians, with many of his officers in their sleep, and brought away his beautiful horses? what was the enterprise of Nisus and Euryalus in the 9th book of the Æneid, in which they murdered so many in their sleep, and in which Euryalus, by taking from one of them his splendid helmet and belt was afterwards discovered by the moon gleaming on its polished surface, and the death of both occasioned by this spoil? These episodes are two of the finest in those immortal Epicks, yet it is only to the genius of Homer and Virgil, that they are indebted for more than may be found in several Indian adventures.

Many of their friendships were as strong as that of the two followers of Æneas; their affection generally for those of their own nation was of the most powerful kind; a proof of this may be found in the speech of a Sachem of the Mohawks to an officer who was hurrying them to undertake an expedition, just after they had returned from holding a Council at Albany, where they had lost, by sickness, some of their finest young men: 'You seem,' said he 'to think 'that we are brutes, that we have no sense of the loss of 'our dearest relations, and some of them the bravest men 'we had in our nation; you must allow us time to bewail 'our misfortunes'—They were guilty of ferocious cruelty towards their enemies. Alas! cruelty is not peculiar to savages. They condemned to torture the foes who would have tortured them.—How many Christian nations are free from the reproach at every period of their history, of having tortured their own subjects, for mere matters of opinion? In war they laid waste the dwellings and cornfields of their enemies, and murdered the defenceless.—Is there nothing in the conduct of nations pretending to the highest civilization, that will, under this head, interfere with their exclusive claim to barbarism?

That they were not merely hunters and warriours, but sagacious in the management of affairs, and capable of deep laid schemes of policy, there are many historical anecdotes

to prove; one must suffice on this occasion. The most accomplished statesman of the Italian school, could hardly surpass the following perfidious and subtle policy of an Indian Chieftain. In the year 1687, Adario, a very distinguished Sachem of the Hurons, finding that his nation had become suspected by the French, on account of the intercourse they had held with the English, determined to recover their good graces by some signal action against the Five Nations, their common foe. For this purpose he left Michilimackinack with an hundred men, and called on his way at the fort of Cadaraqui for intelligence. The French, after many attempts, had just succeeded in obtaining from a part of the Five Nations, that they would send Ambassadours to Montreal to form a treaty of peace. The French commander informed the Huron Chief of this state of affairs, that the deputies were then on their way, and begged him to return home, and attempt no enterprise, that might interrupt these favourable prospects.

Surprised at this intelligence, the wily savage was under the greatest concern for his nation, least they should be sacrificed to the French interests, if the latter could make peace with the Confederacy. Dissembling his feelings, he left the fort, not to return home as the Commander supposed, but to proceed to a spot, where he knew the Ambassadours must pass, to await them. After a short time they made their appearance, guarded by forty young warriours. They were surprised, and all their guards either killed or made prisoners. When these latter were all secured, Adario told them that he had been informed by the Governour of Canada, that fifty of their warriours were to pass that way about this period, and that he had formed this ambush to intercept them. The deputies, astonished at this perfidy of the French, related the purpose of their journey to Adario; on hearing which, he affected the utmost fury and rage at the atrocity, which the French government had caused him to commit, and swore he would be revenged. Then looking steadfastly on the prisoners, one of whom was Decanesora, a famous Chief of the Oneidas, he said, go, my brethren, I loose your bonds, and send you home again, though our nations be at war; I shall never rest easy till the Five Nations have taken their revenge of the French for this treachery.

The Deputies were persuaded by his conduct, and told him, that he and his nation might make peace with them when they pleased. Adario, who had lost but one man in the affair, took one of theirs as usual to supply his place; then giving them a supply of arms and ammunition, dismissed them. These Chiefs were from the Oneida and Onondagua tribes, which had received the Jesuit Missionaries, were the best disposed towards the French, and now returned home most deeply incensed.

One circumstance remained to complete the effect; Adario, on his return, gave up his prisoner to the French officer commanding, who being ignorant of these circumstances, to nourish the hatred between the Five Nations and the Hurons, ordered him to be shot. The Huron Chief called an Indian of the former people to witness this execution of his countryman, and the cruelty of the French, from which even he was not able to save his own prisoner, and then bid him make his escape, and relate what he had seen. The fugitive arrived at the very time, when the French had sent to disown Adario in the action he had committed; but this additional circumstance exasperated them so highly, that they would listen to no representations. Their thoughts were all bent on revenge; a short time after they made a descent on the island of Montreal, took all the Forts in their way, destroyed, with indiscriminate havock, men, women and children, and reduced the French power in Canada to the very verge of ruin.

As the government of these people was a republick, the practice of eloquence was of the highest importance, since the art of persuasion was a principal source of influence and power. None of the Indian Nations carried the science of speaking to greater perfection, of which there are many proofs on record. The general characteristicks of their style are well known. We have received their speeches under every disadvantage, since they come to us through the medium of ignorant interpreters, who were incapable of transfusing the spirit and ornament of one language into the idiom of another, when they thoroughly understood neither. The solemnity of their councils, the dignity and animation of their manner, their style of address, 'Sachems and Warriours,' were all suited to command attention and respect. Colden thus describes one of their orators: 'De-

'canesora had for many years the greatest reputation among 'the Five Nations for speaking, and was generally employ-'ed as their speaker, in their negotiations with both French 'and English: he was grown old when I saw him and heard 'him speak, he had great fluency and a graceful elocution, 'that would have pleased in any part of the world. His 'person was tall and well made, and his features to my 'thinking, resembled much the busto's of Cicero."*

* There were many metaphors which were transmitted down among the Indians, by the women whose business it was to retain and repeat them from one generation to another. The following remarks on the language and oratory of the Five Nations are taken from Colden's history.

'The people of the Five Nations are much given to speech-making, 'ever the natural consequence of a perfect Republican government; 'where no single person has a power to compel, the arts of persuasion 'alone must prevail. As their best speakers distinguish themselves 'in their public councils, and treaties with other nations, and thereby 'gain the esteem and applause of their countrymen, (the only superi-'ority which any one of them has over the others) it is probably they 'apply themselves to this art, by some kind of study and exercise in a 'great measure. It is impossible for me to judge how far they excel, 'as I am ignorant of their language; but the speakers whom I have 'heard, had all a great fluency of words, and much more grace in their 'manner, than any man could expect, among a people intirely ignorant 'of all the liberal arts and sciences.

'I am informed that they are very nice in the turn of their expres-'sions. and that few of themselves are so far masters of their language, 'as never to offend the ears of their *Indian* auditory, by an unpolite ex-'pression. They have, it seems, a certain *urbanitas* or *atticism*, in 'their language, of which the common ears are ever sensible, though 'only their great speakers attain to it. They are so much given to 'speech-making, that their common compliments, to any person they 'respect, at meeting and parting, are made in harangues.

'They have some kind of elegance in varying and compounding 'their words, to which not many of themselves attain, and this prin-'cipally distinguishes their best speakers. I have endeavoured to get 'some account of this, as a thing that might be acceptable to the curi-'ous; but, as I have not met with any one person who understands 'their language, and also knows any thing of grammar, or of the learned 'languages, I have not been able to attain the least satisfaction. Their 'present minister tells me, that their verbs are varied, but in a man-'ner so different from the *Greek* or *Latin*, that he cannot discover by 'what rule it was done; and even suspects that every verb has a pecu-'liar mode: They have but few radical words, but they compound 'their words without end; by this their language becomes sufficiently 'copious, and leaves room for a good deal of art to please a delicate 'ear. Sometimes one word among them includes an entire definition 'of the thing; for examples they call *wine*, *Oneharadeschoengtseragherie*,

The speeches given by Homer to the characters in the Iliad and Odyssey, form some of the finest passages in those poems. The speeches of these Indians only want similar embellishment, to excite admiration. A few fragments of one, may serve as a specimen. It was delivered under the following circumstances. James the second, at the solicitation of the French Court, having given orders to the Colonies not to interfere, the French were determined to bring the Five Nations to their own terms. For this purpose the governor of Canada proceeded with a strong force in 1684 to Lake Ontario. The Indian Chiefs had meanwhile been persuaded by the Jesuits, to send a deputation to meet him; having been promised, that they should be cordially received and kindly treated. The French army however became so much weakened by sickness, so many of the soldiers had died, that all the formidable preparations were rendered useless, and their Commander was unable to prosecute his designs by force. This situation of the French was well understood by the Indians. When they met, after many ceremonies the conference was opened with due form, the parties being drawn up in a circle, of which the French officers formed one half, and the Savages the other. The Governor delivered a most arrogant, menacing speech, to impress them with fear of the tremendous power of France. Garangula, the Indian speaker on this occasion, was much surprised at the difference of its tone, from what he had been led to expect by the Jesuits; and immediately returned an answer of which the following are extracts. The Indians called the Governor of Canada, Onondio; it was their custom to give a surname, as a mark of honour to the Governor of each of the Provinces, which was never changed.

'as much as to say, *a liquor made of the juice of the grape.* The words 'expressing things lately come to their knowledge are all compounds: 'they have no labeals in their language, nor can they perfectly pro- 'nounce a word wherein there is a labeal; and when one endeavours 'to teach them to pronounce words, they tell one, they think it ridicu- 'lous that they must shut their lips to speak. Their language abounds 'with gutturals and strong aspirations; these make it very sonorous 'and bold; and their speeches abound with metaphors, after the man- 'ner of the Eastern nations, as will best appear by the speeches that 'I have copied.'

'ONONDIO

'I honor you, and the warriors that are with me all 'likewise honor you. Your interpreter has finished your 'speech, I now begin mine. My words hasten to reach 'your ears, pray listen to them.'

'Onondio, you must have believed when you left Quebec, 'that the sun had burnt up all the Forests which render our 'country inaccessible to the French, or that the Lakes had 'overflowed their banks, and surrounded our Castles, so that 'it was impossible for us to get out of them. Yes, Onondio, 'you must surely have dreamt this, and curiosity to see so 'great a wonder has brought you so far. Now you are unde- 'ceived, since I and the warriors here present are come to as- 'sure you, that the Senekas, Cayugas, Onondagas, Oneidas 'and Mohawks are yet alive. I thank you, in their name, for 'bringing back into their country that Calumet, which your 'predecessor received from their hands. I congratulate you 'for your good fortune in having left under ground that 'murdering hatchet, which has been so often dyed with the 'blood of the French. Listen, Onondio, I am not asleep, I 'have my eyes open, and that sun which enlightens me, dis- 'covers to me a great Captain at the head of a Company of 'soldiers, who speaks as if he were dreaming. He says that 'he only came to the Lake to smoke on the great Calumet, 'with the Onondagas.' But Garangula asserts, that he sees 'the contrary, that it was to have destroyed them, if sick- 'ness had not weakened the arms of the French.

'I see Onondio raving in a camp of sick men, whose lives 'the great Spirit has saved, by inflicting this sickness on 'them. Hear, Onondio, our women had taken their clubs, 'our children and old men had carried their bows and ar- 'rows into the heart of your camp, if our warriors had not 'disarmed them, and kept them back, when your messenger 'Oquesse came to our castles. Enough, I say no more on 'this subject.'

'We may go where we please, and carry with us whom we 'please, and buy and sell what we please. If your allies be 'your slaves, use them as such, command them to receive 'no other but your people. This belt confirms my words.'

'What I say is the voice of all the five nations; hear what 'they answer, open your ears to what they speak: The 'Senakas, Cayugas, Onondagas, Oneidas and Mohawks

'say, that when they buried the hatchet at Cadaracqui, in 'the presence of your predecessor, in the centre of the 'Fort, they planted the tree of peace in the same place, to 'be there carefully preserved, that in place of being a re- 'treat for soldiers, it might become a rendezvous for mer- 'chants; that in place of arms and ammunitions of war, 'beavers and merchandize should only enter there.

'Hearken Onondio, take care for the future, that so great 'a number of soldiers as appear there, do not choak the 'Tree of Peace planted in so small a fort. It would be a 'great misfortune if after it had so easily taken root, you 'should stop its growth, and prevent its covering your coun- 'try and ours with its branches. I assure you in the name 'of the Five Nations, that our warriors shall dance to the 'Calumet of peace under its leaves, and shall remain quiet 'on their matts, and shall never dig up the hatchet, till their 'brethren Onondio, or Corlaer, shall either jointly or sepa- 'rately endeavour to attack the country which the Great 'Spirit has given to our ancestors. This belt confirms my 'words, and this other the authority given to me by the Five 'Nations.'—Then addressing himself to the French Inter- preter, he said—'Take courage Oquesse, you have spirit, 'speak, explain my words, omit nothing, tell all that your 'brethren and friends say to Onondio, your Governor, by 'the mouth of Garangula, who loves you and desires you 'to accept this present of beaver, and take part with him in 'his feast to which he invites you. This present of beaver 'is sent to Onondio on the part of the Five Nations.'

This speech may be compared with the celebrated mes- sage of the Scythians to Alexander in Quintius Curtius, and it affords materials, which, if they were drest in the style of the great Roman Historians, would vie with any that they have transmitted to us; indeed, its figurative language, pun- gent sarcasm, and lofty tone can hardly be surpassed.

Perilous and romantick adventures,* figurative and elo- quent harangues, strong contrasts and important interests,

* The early history of our country furnishes many characters, ad- ventures and incidents of the strongest interest. Prominent among the former is Capt. John Smith, whose common and familiar name, is the only thing pertaining to his history, which is not elevated and he- roick. His life is now very rare, and the book commands a high price, but a very able abstract of it may be found in Dr. Belknap's American

are as frequent in this portion of history, as the theatre on which these actions were performed is abundant in grand and beautiful scenery. There are many inferiour circumstances that might contribute appropriate materials for poetry. The armorial bearings of the Indians, their Hieroglyphick

Biography. And there is hardly a marvellous tale on the shelves of any circulating library, that can surpass the real adventures of this extraordinary man. From his very infancy, to his death, which happened in the middle period of life, his whole career is a series of daring and romantick achievements in many different parts of the world. His reputation appears without stain, and he is a genuine hero of romance, being equally distinguished for the gallantry of love and war. He gave to the northern Cape of Massachusetts bay, the name of a Turkish lady who interested herself in his fate, when a prisoner of the Turks; but *Cape Tragabizanda*, afterwards got the name of Cape Ann, which it will no doubt retain, though the other out of regard to Smith might be used in poetry. His name is best known in this country, from his encounters with the father of Pocahontas, and the devoted affection of that interesting Indian princess towards him. The character of Standish among the Plymouth colonists; of the Sachem of Mount Hope, and the wars which ended in his destruction: the singular and heroick character of Madame de la Tour, of whom some account may be found in Hubbard's history recently published by the Historical Society from an ancient Ms.: the religious fanaticism and intrigues of Mrs. Hutchinson, and her supporter in Sir Henry Vane, which caused as much trouble and commotion in the colony of Massachusetts, as the Mystical doctrines of Madame Guyon occasioned in Paris and to the Court of Louis 14th. These and many others are interesting materials. The incident mentioned by President Stiles, is very striking, of Dixwell one of the regicides, suddenly emerging from his concealment, and by his presence animating an infant settlement, when suddenly assailed from the Indians, to repel the savages, and then returning unnoticed to his retreat; which made many of the people who knew nothing of his concealment regard him as a mysterious being, a good angel sent for their deliverance. If remarkable characters and actions are to be found in our history, the scenes where they lived or occurred, must be interesting from association of ideas. There are many such, though they have been too much neglected. We have all felt the interest excited by Scott for the scenery he describes in the Lady of the Lake. Its natural beauty is doubtless great—yet, give a bard of equal genius, the spot described in the last volume of the Historical collections, as the one chosen by Gosnold in his first voyage—on one of the Elizabeth Islands, there is a small lake, in which there is a rocky islet, where is still to be seen the foundations of the first dwelling erected on these shores by Europeans. The remarkable security of this situation, its natural beauty, the interest attending this attempt to colonize a country which has since played such an important part in the world, make this secluded spot more interesting than the Highland Lake; the time will come

writings, and some of their superstitions may be made subservient to poetical effect. For instance, there is in Lake Champlain a high rock, against which the waves dash with vehemence, and the spray is thrown to a great height. The Savages believed that an ancient Indian resided under this rock, who had power over the winds; to propitiate him they always threw over a pipe, or made some other oblation in passing. A man of distinction among the early Dutch inhabitants of New York, by the name of Corlaer, who was held in such high veneration by the Indians that they treated with him as the Governor of that Province, and ever after called the Governor by his name; while on his way to visit the Governor of Canada, ridiculed this Indian Eolus. He was drowned directly afterwards by the upsetting of his canoe, which the Indians always attributed to his disrespect for the old man who had the control of the winds. This at least is not more extravagant, than Homer's account of the present made by the monarch of Eolia to Ulysses, of an assortment of winds secured in bags, which being untied by his sailors, a tempest was created, that drove them on the coast of the Lestrigons.

There is an ingenious device of Epick poetry, that might be here used with great effect. This is the prophetick narration, a prophecy after the facts have occurred. Such is the celebrated Ode of Gray, in which the last of the Bards

when this spot will be visited with as much interest, as the traveller at Rome goes to the Fountain of Egeria.

It would be encroaching too far to dwell longer on these topicks. No prejudice is more common, none more unfounded, none will more certainly be hereafter destroyed, than the one which supposes the early history of our country to be deficient in interest. To a person totally unacquainted with it, the mere mention of the leading circumstances on which it is founded, would prove on very slight reflection, that it was indeed impossible it should be so. Even saints and miracles may be incorporated in it, if such be the taste of the poet. In the '*Lettres edifiantes*'* published at Paris in 1807, there are the letters of Father Charlevoix and the other Jesuits in Canada, relating all the minute circumstances of the deaths of some holy Indian Virgins, who died in the odour of sanctity, and at whose tombs miracles were performed duly attested and sworn to by divers honourable men. Those who wish to investigate this department, may consult, *Smith's Life, Belknap's Biography, Hubbard's history, Colden's history of the Five Nations, La Hontan's Travels, and the histories of Virginia and Massachusetts. Charlevoix Nouvelle France. Lafitau's Mœurs des Sauvages, Adair's American Indians.*

* In the Library of the Athenæum.

predicts the misfortunes of Edward's posterity; such are the adventures of Ulysses in the 11th book of the Odyssey, and of Æneas in the 6th book of the Æneid, in which those heroes are told among the shades, the future fortunes of their race. The poet might introduce the expedient as his fancy suggested. It may be supposed that a French and English Officer, and an American Colonist should accompany an Indian Sachem deputed by his tribe, to consult some Indian sorcerer or divinity; the scene may be in one of those islands of Lake Superiour, which some of their traditions represent as the abode of the blest, on shores perhaps untrodden by the foot of man, lone, distant and obscure as those Cimmerian climes, in which lay the opening to Tartarus. In seeking for a knowledge of destiny, what wonderful events would be unfolded.

The prescient expounder of fate would declare to the Chieftain of the Five Nations, the alliances, contests, triumphs and utter extinction of his race; that they should disappear with the animals they hunted, and the forests that sheltered both—they should vanish before the spirit of civilization, like the mist of the Lakes before the morning sun, and leave no trace of their existence, but in the records of the white men—To the Englishman he would foretell the civil war, the death of Charles on the scaffold, the fanatical austerity of the times, the usurpation of Cromwell, and, at his decease, the restoration of Royalty, and the licentious gayety that ensued—the final expulsion of the Stuarts and extinction of that family—the lustre of arts and arms during the reign of Anne; with the subsequent increasing splendour and grandeur of his nation, till their empire should extend over both the Indies. To the American Colonist, would be foretold the American Revolution, the fame of its heroes and statesmen—he would announce to him the first of these, the man who should be first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen; the successful issue of the glorious contest for Independence would be predicted, and he would be shewn the future greatness, happiness and glory of his country.—To the Frenchman he would narrate the conquests, the splendour of the arts and of literature, the bigotry, disasters and miseries of the reign of Louis 14th—the profligacy and corruption of the regency, the loss of their possessions on this continent, and in the last conflict

the death of the victorious and the vanquished Generals under the walls of Quebec—The constant increase of luxury and refinement to the era of the Revolution—In revealing that Revolution, he would describe the contagious enthusiasm of hope which would intoxicate all nations at its dawn ; the crimes, the horrours and wonderful events that would accompany its progress ; and the foul, gloomy despotism that would attend its close.—The King, his family, and his nobles perishing on the scaffold, or withering in exile ; religion prohibited, its altars profaned, its ministers proscribed.—France covered with the dust of her ruined palaces and drenched with the blood of her citizens. He would foretell the rapid rise, energetick progress, and portentous grandeur of the great usurper ; his ambition, wars, and victories ; the ravages committed, the remote regions invaded, the kingdoms overthrown, while

> at his heels
> Lash'd in like hounds, should famine, sword and fire,
> Crouch for employment,

he would predict at the hour of deepest gloom, the reaction of publick feeling, the overwhelming wave of retributive conquest, pursuing him back from every country of Europe to his own capital, his abdication, the return of the —but no, plain prose and sober reason are confounded by these events, they must be left to the madness of verse, and the inspiration of the poet.

This is a cursory sketch of some of the scenes, and events that would be fruitful in poetry. When we recollect what delightful performances have been composed by one modern poet out of the obscure quarrels of Border Banditti, in barbarous ages, how another, in thoughts that breathe and words that burn, has immortalized the pirates of the Archipelago, much may surely be expected from this region when it shall be explored with the torch of imagination. The materials are rude, yet talent only is wanting to mould and animate them. The same block of marble, which in the hands of an artisan, might only have formed a step for the meanest feet to trample on, under the touch of genius, unfolded the Belvidere Apollo, glowing with divine beauty and immortal youth, the destroyer of the Python, the companion of the Muses, the majestick God of Eloquence and Poetry.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

Reflections on the literary delinquency of America.

The title of this paper contains a serious charge. It charges Americans with delinquency in that, to which every other civilized nation chiefly owes its character. It implies that this country wants literary distinction. That we have not entered the service of literature. That we want the results of intellectual labour. That were we to cease from a distinct national existence, the great events of our history would stand alone on the blank of our national character, unsupported by their causes, unsanctioned by their effects. That the whole elements of our literature, were they collected into one mass, would amount merely to accidental efforts of a very few adventurous individuals; our history would be found little more than state topography; our politicks ephemeral effusions of party zeal, and our poetry without a character. An appeal might be made from this melancholy record to our philosophy and science, and the labours of Franklin and Rittenhouse claimed as the heralds of our literary character. But it is hardly to be expected that the phenomena of the age should confer national character. They are accidents of intellect. They are claimed for science and literature in general, not yielded to one nation, to give it a character. These extraordinary men very rarely appear in any country, and their having once appeared, is not an assurance that their like will be looked upon again.

Neither is the gift they make us in their works, often like the Prophet's mantle. So careless are the beings among whom they appear, about the fate of their venerable intellectual remains, that at times the only perfect collections of their works are made by foreigners; as if the country in which they may chance to have been born, were fearful of the imputation of vanity and selfishness, by making itself the herald of their fame. Thus England boasts the first and best editions of the works of our own Franklin. But Franklin's address was 'the world.'

Yielding therefore the reputation which may be challenged on account of the remarkable individuals who may have

appeared among us, to the claims of the literary world at large; let us examine our pretensions to that reputation, which rests on the broader basis of common occurrence; or to that character for letters which a majority of our publications gives rise to; and if it be a reputation with which we cannot be very much delighted, let us search for the causes of our literary deficiencies.

If it be with states as with individuals, we should look for our reputation from others, rather than from ourselves: and who of us is ignorant of our reputation abroad? The information we have gained on this subject, and which may be acquired from an hour's reading of any foreign works of criticism in which our books are noticed has indeed but little to flatter our national pride. Our larger works, if reprinted in Europe, are soon lost in the ocean into which they are thrown. A more disastrous fate, however, commonly awaits them. They are submitted to the common test of literary tyranny, criticism, the very bed of Procrustes, and I have scarcely heard of a volume's being of the standard dimensions.

It is not worth while to inquire for the fate of our smaller, lighter works. We do not feel jealous of the reputation their authors flattered themselves they might be instrumental in producing. Knowing then what is thought of us abroad, and perhaps still willing to act as individuals in like cases, whose self-complacency is generally in a direct ratio to the bad opinions of others, we may seek for some consolation in what we think of ourselves. But how little is there to delight us even from this source? Who is there among us who has dared to write a book, that has received from our literary republick one smile to reward his literary labours? How few works have survived the question of our own criticism? How little has our literature gained from the success of this fortunate number! Who now, we may ask here, in this winter and famine of reputation at home and abroad, will venture to give his days and his nights, to the labours of the mind, that he may do something towards the literature of his country? Who that has talent among us, is wanting in that honest pride and dignified selfishness, which must deter a man from trusting his intellectual labours to criticks destitute of independence, and to a publick too liberal and *patriotick* to allow of the excellence of domes-

tick manufacture? The individual who is bold enough to make the attempt, and feels for our literary interests, what every body among us does for our commercial reputation—the man, who strives to rouse the pride of the nation into action, will encounter hardly less difficulty, or perform a smaller task, than he who gave us a new political existence. —He will not have merely to reform, but to create. He will encounter that most fatal principle to all individual exertion, a deep rooted jealousy of each other. He will meet the sarcastick regards of men who have burdened their minds with the good and bad of literature of Europe, and be confounded with the astonishment of others, who before his declaration to the contrary, had really thought us the most learned, as well as the 'greatest' people under heaven.

From the common-place of opinion among us it is easily discovered, that we enjoy but a feeble literary character any where. The candidates for literary distinction among us, or those that may be, are therefore destined to a high distinction. But let us inquire, who are to award it? Men, who have themselves done much, and are zealous that more may be done? Men, who are weary of the weight of literary responsibility, and are willing and desirous, to find not only successors, but assistants in their labours? No—it is rather to come from men, who have done nothing; but have gained a real susceptibility of successful mental exertion, in laborious study; or a fancied one, in a fastidious taste. Men, who can understand more than they can achieve; men too, who are more successful in detecting deformity, than in perceiving beauty. From men, in short, who are too indolent to be great, and who will not be very anxious to yield, what they have wanted resolution to make their own. If what has been now said be true, let us inquire why we have done so little for literature; and ask, whether our prospects are more promising, than our retrospections are melancholy.

Our literary delinquency may principally be resolved into our dependence on English literature. We have been so perfectly satisfied with it, that we have not yet made an attempt towards a literature of our own. In the pre-eminent excellence of this foreign literature we have lost sight of, or neglected our own susceptibility of intellectual labour. So easy is it for us to read English books, that we have

hardly thought it worth while to write any for ourselves. Perhaps if it had been as difficult to command these inexhaustible literary resources, as we should find it to command those of the Germans, we might have gone seriously to work, and entered vigorously on the noble, dignified employment of our minds. Apologists for our literary delinquency, however, reply, that we were colonies of Great Britain, and virtually as much Englishmen as the inhabitants of any county in England. That place signifies nothing; at least, that the pious Antonine said so; that the mind is the same every where; that it lends its own influences to the circumstances in which it is placed, and admits those of things and beings around it, just as far as it pleases, and no farther. That a peculiarity of language is of no consequence to a literature; that the language of the mind is its own vigorous, overpowering operations; that these last only require language to be clothed with, not to be known by. We are told, that the different modes of using language, viz. its various styles, are distinctive of those who invent or adopt them. That Milton will never be confounded with Shakespeare, because they used a common language, and that when Americans write books, their works will at once be distinguished from those of England. In fine, we are told, that we are destined to the highest literary reputation.

Now, all this may be very true in theory, but what is the fact? Did our venerable fathers, when they deserted their own country, bring with them a thread of that literary tissue, so varied, so rich, and so beautiful, which had been the result of the dignified and delightful labour of England through so many ages of its history? Have we, their descendants, united our industry to theirs? And can we now look back, and find that our labours have been continuous in their extent, and as respectable in character as those of Great Britain? If we cannot, it ill becomes us to seek an apology in our colonial dependence, as some have done, for we were descended from a literary nation. We cannot trace our delinquency to our new form of government, and lose our mental imbecility in the necessary entails of a republican form, for we were once known by the name and condition of subjects. Colonies, however, we confess may not be the favourites of the muses. Rome became

literary when she ceased to be republican. But we have not always wanted a crown, nor have we always been colonies. It is said that the mind acknowledges no distinction of place. Why have we made it appear so dependant? We have not wanted books. We have not been left alone to erect a fabrick of letters. We have been absolutely beset with circumstances infinitely diversified, and infinitely new. Foreigners, however, have almost invariably discovered their novelty and literary character. In natural science, how much might we not have done? Distinguished naturalists of France and Sweden, however, were among the first who traversed our forests, and gathered the sweetest and rarest flowers that blossom there; and we owe to Scotland an American Ornithology. It is admitted, that when we write, our books may be distinguished from those of English writers. Not, however, that difference of style alone will ever designate the literature of a nation; but because our writers can never keep entirely clear of one species of literary treason, viz. the coinage of new terms. These therefore may distinguish our writers. No one however will contend that these will ever challenge a genuine literary reputation.

The truth is, we have wanted literary enterprise, and been sadly deficient in genuine intellectual courage. Circumstances beyond a doubt existed, to prevent our fathers from leaving us a literature. It was hard for them to print, even if they wrote. They were perhaps too dependant on the rough and toilsome circumstances in which they were cast, to lay the foundation of a literature. Perhaps they did enough in founding an empire. They also came here well versed in the learning of their own country, for such was England, though no longer their home; and if they depended on what their brethren in England did for literature, they had claims which an American can never have. In founding colleges for us, perhaps they dreamt they were laying the corner stone of literature.

The literary dependence to which we have been long reconciled, has become so much a part of our character, that the individual who ventures to talk about surmounting it, is thought the wildest of schemers. He is assailed on every hand with the *cui bono?* that most fatal of questions to any plan which is not cast in the mould of domestick economicks, or which would tend to allure a society from

the dull contemplation of its physical wants, and the cheapest means of supplying them. Literary reputation! what is its worth? what *need* have we of a literature?

> "Oh reason not the need :—
> Allow not nature more than nature needs,
> Man's life is cheap as beasts' :"

Again, we are told the literary market is full. Our importations cannot be consumed. There is no demand for American literature. There is not a stall for its literary wares, in the whole market of letters. Shall then the natural productions of our soil find a kind reception every where? Shall their luxuriance not only satisfy ourselves, but go to supply the wants of distant nations, and by their exchange give us the varied products of every climate; and are we willing in literary commerce, the noblest traffick, to depend on the productions of all other nations, without dreaming even of labouring for them ourselves? We seem to relish the literary productions of other countries, and descant with freedom and taste on the results of their literary labours.—We have books of criticism occasionally among us, and in these '*Gazette*' our authors at home when they appear among us, and through them get a sort of introduction into the bureaus of foreign literature. It might be well to dwell for a moment on these works, which make up so much of our literature. But it is melancholy to dwell long even on this subject. Our recollections carry us into a sad region of ephemeral ruins, whose vestiges are so faint, that we hardly believe the tales of their having ever been. To trace their various authors, would be a task unprofitable and fruitless indeed. Almost every number, or new year, of our longest lived journals has boasted a new author. The best written of them all, have soon found repose either in the reputation they have gained their former authors, or have dragged out a miserable existence in the hands of their successors. Their labours of criticism, however, it must be confessed, have had all the effect they were intended to have. Our literature has faded before their smiles, as surely as before their censures. As certainly perhaps would it have died without either. Many of the best works we have written slumber with the worst. Each successive generation of individuals among us, or most of

them, smile at the failure of their cotemporaries ; shrink from the task of tracing our literary history by examining what has already been done ; despair of doing better, and willingly yield the energies of their own minds, to the mere perusal of the dignified effects which have followed from the intellectual activity of others. So listless have we been, that we have not done enough to supply the waste of time, much less to yield a superflux to preserve our literary character.

Some men have traced our deficiencies in letters to our want of the profession or trade of authorship, and of that degree of wealth which would afford it patronage and support. Our predecessors, or those who lived in the earliest periods of our history might have been excused for resorting to such a subterfuge. For theirs were the times when the *physique* stood in greater jeopardy than the *morale*. We live in times however which put this argument to perfect silence. Authorship is no longer a trade. At least the literary reputation of a country, no longer depends on the fitful, and uncertain exertions of genius in rags ; nor the still more hazardous condition of patronal charity. The Muses, in our days, have flown the garret, at least in England, and now figure in the parlours of the nobility ; and even a banker of Liverpool, has amassed for us the literary wealth of Italy.

It must be confessed, however, we are destitute of many of the elements of literature. Thus we want a remote antiquity. In tracing our history, therefore, we are not tracing the developement of human society, the most interesting pursuit which is offered the mind, for it is intrinsically the developement of the mind itself. In the want of a history of the kind just indicated, we want a vast variety of topicks of the very first interest in literature. We are destitute, for instance, of the materials for exercising the highest range of dramatick talent, viz. the historical. To be sure we have not always slumbered in national peace, and we have had many distinguished heroes among us, and one we are ever proud to name, stands at their head. But with all our respect and love for this hero, we fear we could hardly brook to have his name among the *Dramatis personæ*. In the most elevated walk of the muses, the Epick, we cannot hope much distinction, and this for the same

reason which appears so fatal to the American theatre. We live in the same age ; we are too well acquainted with what has been, and is, among us, to trust them to the imagination. It would be an ' old story' to our criticks, for the events transpired yesterday, and some of our oldest heroes are not yet dead. Another fact is, we are all acquainted with them, or feel so. We have therefore no curiosity to excite, for we have no information to give.

Notwithstanding the kind of apology thus furnished for much of our literary delinquency, we cannot but lament, that we have been so deficient, when we reflect how much has been done in the same time, and under perhaps as unfavourable circumstances, in England. What if the historians of an earlier period, have exhausted the materials of historical originality and interest ? What if Milton has inimitably written, and Shakespeare exhausted the passions ? What if Newton, and Bacon, and Boyle were the best scholars in the academy of nature ? What if neighbouring and rival nations, have entered with pride, and talent, and antiquity, and wealth, the lists against her ? Has England ceased from her dignified labours of intellect ? Has England done less than other nations ? No. Every year has yielded something to the literary character of England. The mind never seems at rest there. It is now active for science, and we can hardly keep pace with the scientifick discoveries that are made. Notwithstanding the inexhaustible treasures of poetry in England, almost every year adds something which is destined to live. The mind of the nation seems to have suffered no exhaustion by all that has been done. Where new topicks have seemed wanting, from the immense intellectual labour already bestowed, and an individual has appeared possessing extraordinary mental vigour, we find him venturing on fields long trodden before, and returning with a harvest we could never have anticipated.

Is there not something besides our youthfulness on which we may charge our literary delinquency ? Is it because so much has been done by others, that we withhold our assistance from the commonwealth of letters ? Is it because we are a commercial people, and the mind of the nation thus necessarily diverted from the pursuits of literature ? Is it because we are poor, and feel that our utmost charity will hardly sup-

port the paupers of the state, much less supply the poverty of literature? Let an affirmative answer be given to each of these questions, and is there one of them which will not apply as truly to England, as to America? Nay, is it not matter of greater wonder, that considering all things we have not done more for literature than England, viz. in science, have been more original?

Notwithstanding the literary delinquency of America, still we have done something. Perhaps it would not be fair, to place the period of our national existence among the dark ages of letters. But our best writers have been unfortunate in the vehicles they have chosen as depositories of their intellectual productions. These depositories have been chiefly newspapers and pamphlets of various kinds. Now there is something ephemeral and temporary, in the very nature of these publications. Hence their contents are not safe. A man who writes in them does not think of writing for immortality. His mental labours, of course soon is over, and almost of course, badly done. If it turn out that his communication pleases, it excites but a momentary emotion of pleasure, and his successor into the columns fills his place as perfectly and almost as successfully, as the types which were devoted to their several compositions. The literature, farther, of newspapers and pamphlets, is almost always controversial literature; and in controversy we are always more interested for the champions of party, than for their writings. Controversy, it must be confessed however, among us has done as much for literature, as controversy has among other nations. It has gratified the passions, the prejudices, the whims of the parties concerned, and when the flame is extinguished, the pamphlets which did so much to support it, repose in their own ashes.

Another and very powerful objection might be offered to the vehicles chosen for our literature. They are very short. Their limits allow but a very narrow view of any subject. The writers in them, are confined almost to a single topick of their subject, and when they begin to write, they must reduce their minds, as well as their thoughts within the limits prescribed either by themselves, their partizans, their printer, or their bookseller. Now, there is a great deal in all this which has a bad tendency

in relation to literature. A bold and vigourous mind might not be willing to submit to such circumscription, and of course we should lose the results of its labours; and, beyond all doubt, many a bold and vigorous mind among us has by this submission, exhausted itself, in ephemeral labours, for these short lived works.

If we have been successful in detecting some of the causes of our literary delinquency, it may be expected, that some means for correcting this national fault should be suggested. It is a trite but true saying, however, that it is easier to discover the causes of evils, than to find their remedies. And some have argued, that it is but a stinted charity, which is only successful in doing the first. It may require an apology too, that we have ventured on the discussion of our literary deficiencies at all. But we are all partakers in this sin, and all, and each of us, of course, have some reason, and right, to inquire into its nature and extent. It may be, that we may be solicitous for amendment in ourselves, or if we find that hopeless, that we may become instrumental, in some degree, towards that of others. If it be not arrogant, we would ask, what are the means which appear to promise to do most to remedy our literary delinquency? Would they not principally, nay at the present moment wholly consist in the vigorous exertion of our own minds? And what are some of the topicks, on which they may be exerted? Would not the complete history of the United States of America be a subject worthy of writing? We do not mean a work of a day, or of a volume, but a work which should embrace our political history in its widest extent;—which should contain a discussion of all that is peculiar in our civil polity,—which should investigate and decide the effects of our religious toleration, which, except in America, has never been perfect in any part of Christendom,—which should give the history of our literary labours in all their varieties and degrees—and which, above all, should give the moralist and philosopher our genuine national character? Would not a collection of all that has been done for poetry among us, which is worthy the name, be an honourable labour for a vigorous mind? It might embrace the biography of our poets,—It might contain, the real state of this department of literature among us, and if it were found deficient, trace the causes

of its deficiency, and show the remedy.—But we will leave this ungrateful office, of tacit reproof, and only lament, that for literature, the pride of a nation,—an earnest of its immortality, this country has done no more.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

There is an annual exhibition at Westminster school in London, when the upper class of boys leave the school; on which occasion one of the comedies of Terence is performed by some of the best scholars. A prologue and epilogue, are composed every year, the latter of which is commonly of a lively cast, and alludes to the events of the day. The play selected this year was *Phormio*, and the epilogue which is taken from the Gentleman's Magazine for the month of April, here follows. The motive for republishing this piece of classick scurrility, is to shew the pernicious effects of the libels of the Quarterly Review. All the most odious and absurd calumnies contained in that work, are here introduced into Latin verse, and a class of boys, belonging to some of the most respectable families of the kingdom, take leave of the seminary, and their last act reciting an exercise, conveying the most false and degrading picture of this country; and leaving an impression on their minds which will probably continue through life. Now it is impossible to suppose, that the respectable heads of this celebrated school would have permitted an indecency of this kind, and this too soon after the declaration of peace, if they had not believed the falsehoods on which it is founded.

It is impossible to read without disgust and indignation the villainous inflammatory abuse, with which all the democratick papers in this country have been filled since the peace, against Great Britain: for a state of peace produces no cessation of animosity, or any change of language in them. Nay, the National Intelligencer, which derives great support from the particular patronage of government, and is one of the most conspicuous in this line, published in the paper of 1st of August last, two or three columns of the most stupid calumny against Russia, merely because Russia was opposed to Buonaparte. It is an awkward task to find

fault with a foreign nation, when our own government protects such conduct as this. But in despite of the newspapers in this country and in England, which labour so assiduously in their vocation of national abuse, and endeavouring to exasperate the two countries into perpetual war; a good understanding may still be maintained, if honourable men in both, will treat their efforts with the contempt they merit; and endeavour to cultivate esteem for each other. The intercourse between the two nations is so constant, and from a similarity of language so easy, that it would not be difficult to bring to the bar of publick opinion any literary, or political character, who should in either country, bring forward or support a gross calumny against the other; and he should have an opportunity to apologize for errour, or be disgraced for it, as certainly, as if the offence were against his own. If this responsibility could be produced, the efforts of the profligate incendiaries who subsist by administering stimulants to the passions of the vulgar, might be regarded with contempt. This epilogue may be considered a sufficient apology, if any were necessary, for the indignation which has been felt, in this country, at the brutal abuse of the Quarterly Review.

EPILOGUS. IN PHORMIONEM.

DAVUS. GETA.

DA. Salve iterum, Geta. Sed quid agis? quisnam iste paratus?
Num liber factus? GE. Mox, nisi fallor, ero.
DA. Nempe tuâ cecisse operâ vestra omnia pulcrè
Audieram. GE. Immo aliis; non ita, Dave, mihi.
Lætitia in communi ego solus negligor. Ergo
Prospicio ipse mihi. DA. Quid meditare? GE. Fugam.
DA. Di vortant bene! sed pedetentim. GE. Atqui omnia dudum
Corrasi, id metuens. DA. Quo fugis? GE. Hesperiam.
DA. Quid? quæso, oceani fines quæ visitur ultra
Barbara inhumanis terra habitata viris?
GE. Immo ea, quæ, nostris quondam quæsita colonis,
Nunc unum in terris cernitur Elysium.
DA. Horrida quorum hominum vel nomina respuit auris
Attica, pene etiam lingua sonare timet.
Chaktawos, Cherokæos, Pawwawos, Chickasawos,
Michilimakinacos, Yankey-quê-doodelios.
GE. Quæ virtute, fide, majestate, artibus, armis,
Consilio, eloquio, moribus, ingenio,
Nullam non longe exsuperat gens unica gentem.
Quæ sit, quæ fuerit, quæque futura siet.

Nostra venustatis si quid, si secula vatum
Aurea divinæ simplicitatis habent.
Hĕsperia omne tĕnet : neque adhuc Astræa reliquit
Hunc orbem ; inque istis lœta moratur agris.
Da. Atque ibi non virgo, verum est Astræa virago ;
Saepe est, ut perhibent, ebria ; saepe pugil ;
Nonnunquam quoque fur. Nec morum dicere promtum est;
Sit ratio simplex, sitne venusta magis.
Æthiopissa palam mensæ famulatur herili
In puris naturalibus, ut loquimur.
Vir braccis se bellus amat nudare décentĕr,
Strenuus ut choreas ex-que-peditus agat.
Quid quod ibi ; quod congerere ipsis conque morari
Dicitur, incolumi nempe pudicitiâ,
Sponte suâ, sine fraude, torum sese audet in unum
Condere cum casto casta puella viro ?
Quid noctes cænæque Deûm ? quid amœna piorum
Concilia ? Ge. Immo audi, quæ bona vera feram.
Agricola es ? tibi mille patent, quæ libera et ante
Immetata tuis jugera bubus ares.
Auceps es ? media perdix vulgo errat in urbe.
Potor es ? hora haustus fert ibi quæque novos.
Titillatorem Gingivæ, Phlegmotomum-que,
Fellifragumque bibes, Anti-que-fogmaticum.
Aurea præterea libertas, Dave ! homo servus
Nĕmo ibi. Da. At Æthiopes—G. Sunt ibi non homines.
Qui vult, et quod vult, et de quo vult, homo sentit ;
Et cui vult audet dicere, vel facere.
Fit sponte injussus quisque indoctusque, Senator,
Mercator, Judex, Dux, Sophus aut Medicus.
Spernuntur tirocinii legesque moræque :
Est diploma satis cuique libido sua.
Da. Nempe senatores pestrinum et ganea mittunt :
Optimus et Judex maximus est nebulo.
Scitĕ oratorem orator convincere certat ?
Largiter adversi conspuit ora viri :
Neve ea Rhetorice valeat minus, herba salivam
Lætius effundi Nicotiana facit.
Mentiri est mercatoris laus summa ; ducisque
Cura, diarrhææ consuluisse suæ.
Tum lusus : oculos exculpere pollice, frontem
Scalpere, nasum omnem mordicus abripere ;
Atque necare hominem jocus est lepidissimus. At tu,
Aurea libertas quæ siet illa, vide.
Primum, crede mihi, si te semel atra Charontis
Ceperit Elysium navis itura tuum,
Ipsum omnes absumet opes tibi naulum : animam inde
Debebis, nullo est quæ redimenda die ;
Postremo magnos pasces in carcere mures.
Quin age, et in melius consule, dum potis es.
Hesperiam laudet sine perditus, impius, exlex ;
Si sanus satis es, tu, Geta, siste domi.
Sin aliter valeas. Valeant peregrina volentes
Littora natali præposuisse solo.

PUNS.

FROM THE GENTLEMAN'S MAGAZINE.

"I was told some time ago of a pun being *whistled* at Cambridge. A member of that University was so addicted to punning, that a wager was laid him, that he could not refrain from it an hour in company. Before the time was expired, he happened to see a sailor in the street, who had lost a leg, swinging between two crutches; and immediately began to whistle the tune of "*Through the wood laddie.*"

Billy Snip went to skate, when, the ice being loose,
He fell in; but was sav'd by good luck:
Cried the Tailor, 'I'll never more leave my *hot goose*,
To receive in return a *cold duck*.'

[The science of *Bibliography*, is perhaps of all others the least known in this country, although there a few amateurs who have a smattering of it. When books and libraries became multiplied, there was real utility, in it when properly conducted, and there are some works in this department that are invaluable. It has recently in England become a most expensive and fashionable pursuit, and much ridiculous extravagance is discovered, which in the mode in which it is now conducted, rather demands wealth than talent to become an adept. The principle author in this branch is the Rev. T. F. Dibdin, who has published some amusing works, that by their splendid decorations have tended greatly to nourish the *Bibliomania*. In the Gentleman's Magazine for June, there is a letter from him describing a work he has now in progress, and which may give an idea of the present state of this fashionable pursuit.]

Kensington, June 7.

'MR. URBAN,

On publishing the *fourth* and *last* volume of the BIBLIOTHECA SPENCERIANA, I consider myself in some degree called upon by the subscribers to my remaining works in hand, to state the progress they are making, and the probable period of their publication. The third volume of the TYPO-

GRAPHICAL ANTIQUITIES has been for some time in gradual progress through the press, and will appear towards the end of the present year. About one third of it is already printed. The BIBLIOGRAPHICAL DECAMERON demands a more explicit notice.

In the few copies of the Prospectus of this latter work, which I circulated among my friends, I observed that it was my intention to exhibit in it, 'a union of elegant ornament 'and interesting information, upon subjects which were now 'beginning strongly to claim the attention of the publick; and 'upon which, in this country, very little accurate informa-'tion had, comparatively, been imparted'—and that eighteen 'months had then elapsed in the preparation of drawings and 'engravings for it.' The parts or manner of the distribution of the work, are as follows.

First day.—*Illuminated Manuscripts.* Under this interesting department will be found embellishments, or faithfully executed fac similes, illustrative of a few of the choicer and more splendid MSS. in the libraries of the *British Museum*, of the *Bodleian*, of *Lambeth*, of *Westminster*, and of a few distinguished private Collectors. I should be loth to promise what is not likely to be performed; or to incur the censure of vanity or presumption in asserting that the materials already collected, in this department of the work, are more numerous, more beautiful, and more faithful, than any which, to my knowledge, have come under the eye of the publick. Those friends who have seen the drawings already made from the magnificent Missal of Pope Sextus IV. executed by *Francesco Veronese* and *Giralomo dei Libri*—and formerly in the collection of Mr. Edwards—from the *Roman de la Rose* (in the British Museum)—from the exquisite small missel sold at the sale of the library of Mr. Edwards (No. 329. now in the collection of Mr. North)—and from the yet more celebrated volume, known under the name of the *Bedford Missal*,—from the MS. *Decameron* of *Boccacio*, in the collection of Mr. Coke of Holkham—from fragments of *old choral books*, in the collection of Mr. W. Y. Ottley—from the MS. of the *Greek Gospels* in the collection of Mr. Dent—as well as from several other precious specimens of early art—are at liberty to declare their own unbiassed sentiments respecting the truth, or otherwise of the foregoing declaration.

Second day. *Printed Missals, Breviaries and Horæ.* Upwards of fifty wood cuts are already executed to give interest and beauty to this department of the work. From these will be seen the costume, and the prevailing taste (whether in droll or grave subjects—childrens' pastimes, or death's dances) of the times—the variety, the richness, and the typographical difficulties of the execution of these publications, as well as the comparative state of the arts of design and engraving. The devices of Verard, Pigouchet, Kerver, Hardouyn, Simon du Bois, &c. &c. &c. will also be found in this part of the work.

Third day. *Books printed from wooden blocks ; and books containing early and curious specimens of engraving ; Bibles ; Books of games and sports ; of manners and customs ; of studies and sciences.* These subjects bespeak attention for themselves. Numerous engravings in wood are already executed for their elucidation ; and among them will be found some interesting specimens illustrative of the studies of Botany, Astrology, Chiromancy, &c. &c. three centuries ago. *Books of Emblems* are also noticed and illustrated by fac similes.

Fourth day. *Origin and progress of printing upon the continent.* A concise and faithful outline of this interesting subject is yet a desideratum in biliography. How far my past and present pursuits have fitted me for the task, the publick is left to determine.

Fifth day. *Portraits, devices, and marks of ancient Printers.* It will be obvious that this department of the work must be almost entirely decorative. Accordingly, there have been already cut in wood, fac similes of the devices of Vostre, Petit, Rembolt, Regnault, Le Noir, Vostreman, Gilles de Gourmont, Marnef, Roche, Eustace, Galliot du Pre, Borcard, Tailluer, Consin, Couteau, Ascensius, Colinæus, Morel, the Stephenses, Ferendat, Chevellat, Amazeur, Vignon, Lambert, &c. &c.—among the French printers ;—of Aldus and his family, of Giolito, the Sessæ, the Giuntæ, the Sabii, the Scoti, &c. among the Venetian printers ;—of Froben, Oporinus Valentine Curio, Heveagius, Brylinger, Guarinus, Bebelius, Isingrinus, &c. —among the Basil printers ;—of Plantin and Tibbald, &c. —among the Antwerp printers ;—of the Gryphii, the Frellæi or Frellonii, &c.—among the Lyons printers ;—and of

the Elzevirs and Hackizes, &c.—among the Dutch printers. Of many of these, several *varieties* of their devices will be given : and I am already disposed to exult in the wealth of my collection, which contains not fewer than *six dolphins* of Aldus, and *seven cats* of the Sessæ !

Of the *portraits of the printers*, those of *Froben and Plantin*, upon copper (the first from an original painting in the possession of Earl Spencer—and the second from a scarce print by Goltzius) cannot fail to be interesting to the lovers of fine printing, and learned printers.

Sixth day. *Of ancient and modern bookbinding and bookbinders.* Fac similes of covers of old books—displaying tasteful and beautiful specimens of ancient art, in the Arabesque character, have been carefully selected. Anecdotes of modern bookbinders, with criticisms on their comparative merits, will form no uninteresting addition to this department of the work.

Seventh day. *Literary bibliography.* The portraits of Mallinkrot, Mattaire, Meerman, Fabricius, Tiraboschi, and Lambecius, will appear in this division of the work.

Eighth day. *Of book sales by auction.* This department of the work will necessarily form a continuation of what appeared in the *Bibliomania*—from p. 404 to 612. Although I have been anticipated in a portion of it by the publication of Mr. Horne, yet it seems essential to make such a continuation—which will be found to contain some anecdotes not generally known. The Roxburgh, Stanley, Alchorne, Merley, Towneley, Edwards, Devonshire, and Grafton Book Sales, afford materials sufficiently varied for the selection of the Book Chronicler.

Ninth day. *Eminent English Booksellers and Printers.* The portraits of the late Mr. T. Payne, of Mr. George Nicol, bookseller to his Majesty, of the first Caslon the type-founder, of Baskerville, and of Messrs. Nichols, Bensley and Bulmer, will be introduced in this department of the work.

Tenth day. *Account of some of the most distinguished publick and private Libraries, in Great Britain.* The libraries of Durham, York and Lincoln Cathedrals, will be noticed in this department ; and a beautiful portrait of *Dean Honeywood*, the founder of the latter library—as well as the portraits of *James* and *Rouse*—the earliest

librarians of the Bodleian collection, will enrich this tenth and last division.

Such is the 'Prospectus' of the *Bibliographical Decameron.* It remains to make an observation of no small importance to the welfare of the work. Every candid and reflecting reader must allow, that, in the conduct of such a performance, consistently with the plan above laid down, which is intended to be rigidly carried into effect—it will demand no trifling support in the shape of *pecuniary resources.* Nearly *one thousand pounds* have been already devoted to the decorations alone: but to complete the plan, *another thousand* will be essentially requisite. For this I purpose making an appeal to the liberality of my subscribers; and as the work is published entirely at my own expense, to solicit for the first time, the contribution of one third of the subscription price.

Upon the maturest consideration, and making due allowance for a calculation which cannot embrace a few unforeseen contingencies, I do not imagine that these two volumes, printed in the best manner of the *Shakespeare Press,* in a small delicate type, upon paper of unusually fine substance, nearly the whole of which has been already manufactured for the work—enriched with scarcely less than *three hundred embellishments,* and comprehending at least 1000 pages, can be published at a price below that which the reader has probably before noticed; nor shall they exceed *7l. 17s. 6d.* to the subscriber.

The work will be dedicated, by permission, to his Grace the *Duke of Devonshire;* and I pledge myself *it shall never be re-printed;* as far as I have the power of carrying such pledge into effect.

Yours, &c. T. F. Dibdin.

TO THE EDITOR.

Sir,

You have given in your last number some extracts from a work printed at Breslau, entitled *Biographie Moderne,* which is at the Athenæum. In the twenty-seventh number of the Edinburgh Review, there is an article of considerable extent, said to have been written by Mr. Walsh, on a work with the same title, printed at Leipsic; it may be

interesting to some of your readers to consult this Review. As the work at the Athenæum is a second edition, it is probable, that these absurd accounts of American characters were not contained in the Leipsic edition, or they would have been noticed by Mr. Walsh; if the article was written by him. It is rendering a publick service to denounce books of this kind. What idea would be formed by a German of some of the most eminent characters in our country from perusing such a work. If a correspondence could be established between literary men of different countries, some check might be given to the circulation of calumny, by instantly denouncing to each other, every work that should contain it. P. O.

FOR THE NORTH AMERICAN JOURNAL.

There have been lately received at the Athenæum, the transactions of the French Institute for the years 1813 and 1814, of which we will attempt to give a slight account. The analysis of the labours of the class of the mathematical and physical class is made by *M. Delambre*. It commences by noticing the publication of *la mechanique analytique* of the *Count de Lagrange*, whose death happened while the second volume was printing. The great loss sustained by science in this event is deplored, and the hope encouraged that the influence of his writings will raise up others to complete them. This hope is justified by an allusion to one of the first works of Lagrange, the calculation of *probabilities*, on which the last year a perfect treatise had been given by the *Count de la Place ;* and who has lately applied his theory to one of the most difficult questions suggested by physical astronomy ; the origin of comets and the nature of their orbits. Some account of this paper then follows. Its hypothesis is founded on a suggestion of Herschel relative to the origin of comets, which resembles much the doctrine of the ancients on this subject ; and which M. Delambre thinks will tend to diminish greatly the importance of these bodies, if it should prove to be well founded. The next paper mentioned is a memoir of *M. Burckhardt* on the masses of the planets, and another of the same, on some of the equations in the theory of Jupiter ; these are followed by an abstract of a second memoir by *M. Poisson* of the distribution of elec-

tricity on the surface of conducting bodies. Notice of the new memoirs of *M. Biot* on the polarization of light, is given next. A portable Barometer on a new construction by *M. Gay Lussac* is described, and mention of a description read to the class by Count Rumford of a thermometer, to measure the specifick heat of solids and liquids. The analysis concludes with a list of the books and memoirs presented to the class, and some remarks upon them. The analysis for 1814 by the same author, commences with an abstract of some memoirs of *M. Biot*, under the following heads; New application of the theory of the oscillations of light; On the physical properties which luminous molecules acquire in traversing cristals of double refraction; Discovery of a physical difference in the nature of the polarizing powers of certain cristals; on a particular species of polarization which is observed in the Tourmaline. Then follows the result of certain meteorological operations by *Baron Ramond*. The next is an abstract of a memoir by *M. Poisson* on elastick surfaces. A memoir of *Laplace* on the probability of testimonies, intended to complete his analytical theory of probabilities is briefly mentioned. Tables of *M. Burckhardt* for the parabolick movement of comets, an account of an antique vase by *M. Monger*, a memoir by *Count Andreossi*, on the Bosphorus of Thrace follow. These are succeeded by an interesting dissertation of *Delambre's* on a dial found at Delos and on the gnomonicks of the ancients. The paper terminates as usual, with an account of the printed books and memoirs presented to the class.

The department of Physicks is by *M. Cuvier;* the analysis for 1813, commences with several experiments on the congelation of water, by different chemists, in consequence of the discoveries of Leslie, this is followed by an account of some experiments of the various degrees of heat possessed by the rays of light when dissected by the prism. Mention is made of some experiments upon alcohol to decide upon the manner of its formation. An account of the effects of a combination of azote and chlorine, by M. Dulong, which produces a fulminating oil, and a preparation extremely dangerous. This chemist lost one eye and his life nearly, in the experiments, which had also been nearly fatal before to Sir H. Davy. The class therefore advised

him to pursue it no further. Another fulminating powder from different materials had been accidentally discovered, and was supposed to have a strong analogy to the last. *Vauquelin* found all the qualities of *ultramarine*, in a substance which had been found in taking to pieces a furnace constructed of particular materials, and this had occasioned a hope that a new mode might be produced of obtaining this precious colour. Some very curious experiments, in analyzing platina, had been made by *Vauquelin*. A short mention is made of a new elementary treatise of chemistry by *Thenard*, accommodated to the present state of the science. The progress of mineralogy and geology is described, and the accurate investigations that have been made in the environs of Paris by *Cuvier* and *Brogniart*, and also some new works now in progress by the latter, particularly a general treatise of geology. Under the head of vegetable and botanical physiology, some ingenious observations and discoveries of several botanists are given, and mention of two new works, one of M. Delille on the wild and cultivated plants of Egypt, which is to form part of the great work on that country; and an abridged history of the plants of the Pyrenees by *M. de la Peyrouse*. The recent labours of *Cuvier*, *Huber*, *Olivier* and others in zoology, animal physiology and anatomy, follow, and some account of fishes, and interesting and minute investigation of various insects given. The paper terminates with the department of the Medicine and Surgery. A memoir of *M. Chambon* on the danger encountered by anatomists in their dissections; a work by a young Spanish physician, *M. Orfila*, on poisons considered medically and juridically; some remarkable cases by *M. Pictet*. A new work of *M. Portal* on the diseases of the liver, and of *M. Tenon* on the means of prolonging life and enjoying health in old age, are the works noticed.

The analysis for 1814, by the same, commences with some just and neat compliments to the allied Sovereigns and their followers, on the protection and respect they shewed to the sciences and the museums of the arts and sciences during their visit to Paris, in that year. He remarks that 'the grand crusade was in part undertaken to 're-establish the liberty of thinking and writing;' and expresses strong hopes that science will be cultivated with

increased ardour and success for the future. His report commences with chemistry, and narrates the experiments of Berthollet, Davy, and others upon *iode* 'one of the most 'curious substances of recent discoveries ;'—and then follows the account of further investigations of alcohol. *M. Pelletier* had communicated some experiments on the colouring matters obtained from sandal wood and *orcanete*. *M. Vanquelin's* further experiments on platina and its component minerals are detailed. M. Monger had read a memoir on the bronze of the ancients ; it had been discovered that bronze was not like steel hardened by immersion in water when heated ; but on the contrary left to cool slowly in the air : in consequence of this *M. Darcet* had succeeded in making cymbals, the secret of which was said to be known to only one workman in Constantinople, from whence all these instruments were obtained. Mineralogy and Geology come next ; some remarks on the fall of stones, and examination of their composition, are first given. *M. Cuvier* then speaks of the skeleton which was found about a century ago in a quarry in Switzerland, which had been thought to be that of a man, and had been placed in a museum, with this inscription, *a man witness of the deluge*. *M. Cuvier* having obtained leave to remove more of the stone in which it was enveloped, found that it was the skeleton, as he before supposed from seeing a drawing of it, of a salamander. He had discovered also in the Gypsum of Montmartre a fossil head of an extinct species of animal, which he has called *Palaco therium medium*. *M. Humbolt's* history of the volcano of Jorullo is mentioned. In this as in most other scenes of nature, South America has rendered those of every other region almost insignificant in comparison. The labours of Botany are next related, and many dissertations of different botanists noticed. In the department of Anatomy and Zoology, several minute discoveries, in the construction of certain insects, and two papers on different parts of the human body are detailed. In Medicine and Surgery some strong recommendations of the English practice of amputation are given, particularly by *M. Percy*, who said he could speak of its good effects having 'had the sad advantage to perform more operations of 'this kind than perhaps any surgeon who ever existed.' A further account is given of the work on poisons, by M. Or-

fila, mentioned in the analysis of 1813. The paper concludes with what had been done in Agriculture and the Veterinary art.

The 'notice of the labours of the class of the fine arts for '1814,' is given by *M. Le Breton*. An account is rendered of several pieces of Musick, of several performances in painting, sculpture and architecture, by the students who are pensioners of the government at Rome. A general account also is given of the progress of the arts in Paris, and various publications, French and foreign, connected with the Fine Arts. At the close is a list of the prizes in painting, architecture, sculpture and engraving, and of the artists who had obtained them. Among these is one for a library with several apartments attached to it, for purposes of the arts, and cabinets of natural history, which was to be erected somewhere in the south of France; as this is an establishment which we are in the most urgent want of here, and as there is some hope that we may soon obtain an edifice of this kind, it might be expedient to obtain copies of these plans, of which there were three that received prizes.

The report of the labours of the class of history and ancient literature, is made by *M. Daunou*. The best idea that can be given of these, in our brief limits, is the marginal notes which contain the titles of the memoirs which are as follow. 'Observations of *M. Gail* on a text of Demosthenes relative to the topography of Athens. Memoir of *M. Gail* on the geography of the environs of the Euripas, and on the expedition of Diitrephes against Mycalessa. Researches about the place called Hermaion in Thucydides by M. Caussin. Observations of *M. Gail* on the sense of certain Greek words, and on the Hermæum of Livy. A second memoir of *M. Caussin* on the position of Hermaion or Hermæum. *M. Gail* and *M. Caussin* on the meaning of certain Greek words. Researches of *M. Gail* on the battle of Platea. Geographical researches by *M. Gail* respecting Thrace, Macedonia, Thessalia, Epithrace and Illyria. Memoir of *M. Gail* on this question, Is the 8th book of Thucydides genuine? Memoir of *M. Amauri Duval* upon an Italian dissertation which tended to prove that there existed a town called Naples in the

ancient Peucetian Apulia. Memoir of *M. Valcnaer* on a portion of the ancient Appian way. Researches by M. Valcnaer on a Roman way recently discovered between Sens and Coulommiers. Researches by the same on the ancient itineraries of Persia and India, and on the marches of Alexander and Seleucus Nicator. A memoir on the subject of the Caspian gates. Remarks, by the same, on the denomination of Caspian, Caucasian and Sarmatian gates given to different defiles of Caucasus. Memoir of *M. Faucis de Saint Vincent* on the places in Provence where the Cimbri were vanquished by Marius. Letter of *M. Fauvel* from Athens giving an account of some new researches in that neighbourhood. The Journal of *M. Fourcade* in Bosnia. Memoirs on some charts of the middle ages, particularly those of Marino Saluto, and of Marco Polo which are in the hall *dello scudo* at Venice, by *M. Baillon.* Memoir of *M. Monger* on the exterior tunick. Memoir by the same on the bronze of the ancients. Notice of painted vases; observations on a medal of the city of Siris; on the sepulchral monuments of Campanus, etc. by *M. Millin.* Memoir of the *Count de la Borde* on the three monuments relative to the history of Orestes. Memoir of the same on Arabian architecture. On the influence of Christianity in the abolition of slavery, by *Count Gregoire.* On the influence of Christianity on the condition of women, by the same. Memoir of *M. Clavier* on the question, whether the ancients punished or tolerated abortion? Memoir of *M. Boissonade* on the same question. Memoir by the same on the letters of Crates the Cynick. Memoir of *M. Bernardi* on Galerius Trachalus. Memoir on the arrival of Frigga Fridulfson or Odin in Scandinavia by *M. Graber of Hemso.* Examination of the systems relative to the origin of the Russians, by *M. Daunou.* Answer of *M. Petit Radel* to the preceding memoir. Memoir of Baron *de Sacy* on a treaty between the Genoeze of Pera and the Prince of the Bulgarians. Memoir of Count *Lanjuinais* on the Latin Supines. Notice of the life of Machiavel, serving as an introduction to the examination of his works, by *M. Guinguene.*

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

The tempest of the 23d of September, which caused so much injury in Connecticut, Rhode-Island, and Massachusetts, has been fully described in all the newspapers; but its violence was so remarkable, that it may be interesting to record an epitome of these accounts in this Journal. The months of August and September, have this year produced repeated hurricanes, and more extensive disasters at sea, than have happened for upwards of thirty years. Many of the Islands in the West Indies have been visited by them, and a great number of vessels lost, particularly at Martinique and St. Bartholomews, which latter Island has encountered two of them. At sea the whole extent from the West Indies along the Gulf stream to the banks of Newfoundland, has been swept by successive gales. The shore of the United States has experienced several fresh gales, but only two that have done much damage; one on the coast of North Carolina on the 3d of September, in which many vessels were driven on shore, and many buildings unrooffed or blown down; the effects of this did not extend beyond the sea coast of that state; the other, which happened on the 23d of September, was more violent and destructive.

This may be described as the Equinoctial gale, terminated by a hurricane. Its violence extended over a space of eighty or ninety miles square, and was felt in a south east direction at sea to an uncertain distance. During the greatest violence of the gale from the east to south-east in this district, the wind was north and north-west, at Philadelphia, moderate, and the weather mild. At New-York they had a north-east gale of wind, of no greater violence than is usual at the Equinox, and no important injury was received. At Boston, there was on Friday, the 22d of September, a strong gale from the north east, which increased in violence on the next day, the wind changing to the east and blowing till about eleven o'clock, when it shifted to the south east, and bore a hurricane character, of great fury, for about two hours. Between one and two o'clock it came to the southwest, and the afternoon was quite mild and pleasant, and the atmosphere pure, clear, and calm.

The strength of the wind, and its tornado character, was principally felt over the range of country between New-London and Newburyport, and its greatest intensity between Rhode Island, and Worcester in Massachusetts. The greatest injury was suffered by some towns on the south shore of Massachusetts, on Rhode Island, Stonington and Providence. This injury was occasioned by the great rise of the tide, which drove the vessels on shore, forced them against dwelling and ware houses situated near the edge of the water, and washed away and destroyed many buildings, and damaged much valuable merchandize. Providence suffered most, and even the lowest estimate of their loss, which was at first greatly exaggerated, would have made the storm a very serious calamity to the town. In Boston the damage was in no particular case very considerable, and this was owing to the circumstance of the gale abating two hours before high water, which saved the warehouses in the lower parts of the town from destruction. The loss of lives was comparatively small, though in some cases very distressing, as in one instance of an individual who witnessed his wife and children perishing before his eyes, without the possibility of saving them. About twenty persons were drowned or killed, by the falling of buildings in different places. It fortunately occurred in the day time; hundreds would have been destroyed, if it had taken place by night. Its ravages in the country, were felt in the total or partial destruction of buildings, and the tearing up of trees. In the district before mentioned hardly an individual escaped from some injury in this way.

The air was hot and suffocating at intervals during the time that the wind came from the south and south-east, the atmosphere was filled with the salt water which was taken up and dispersed into mist by the force of the wind. This salt mist was left upon objects at a distance of forty miles from the sea, so as to be perceptible to the taste. Large numbers of gulls and sea birds were also carried to the same distance. And it was said, in one place, that an immense flock of white headed Eagles and Hen Hawks, amounting to thousands, passed over towards the westward, the *day preceding* the hurricane. At New-London the brooks and springs were turned brackish for a day or two, and some of the wells dry during the gale. The leaves of the trees faded,

perhaps from the joint effects of the friction, and the salt mist, and had the same appearance as if scorched by the fire. Some of the earlier kinds, such as the willows, lilacks, &c. have since put out a new set of leaves. The violence of the wind may be appreciated from its having entirely dismasted vessels as they lay at anchor, with their sails furled, and from its havock among the trees. Upwards of twenty elms, in Boston alone, some of which were three feet in diameter at five feet from their roots, were torn entirely out of the ground. It is worthy of remark, that every one of these were of the European species. Not a single American elm was started, though many of their branches were twisted off. Out of a whole row on the western edge of the common, all the American, but only a single European elm, escaped. As our elm is in itself a much handsomer tree, and is so much stronger in its hold on the earth from the wide spread of its roots, it is perhaps expedient to give it the preference in all plantations. The American elm however is subject to having its foliage destroyed by worms, which do not attack the other species.

Though the gale was so severe and mischievous at Boston, it did little damage at Salem. The latter town had previously experienced a serious disasters in a hail storm, on the first of August, which in the course *ten minutes* broke 130,000 panes of glass. The season has in other respects been remarkable. The month of July was hotter and drier than it had been known to be for twenty-five years; and the months of August and September, an almost constant succession of cloudy and wet weather, accompanied with east and north-east winds; while at a short distance from the coast, and over the whole Atlantick, the winds have been almost without interruption westerly.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

On the pleasure derived from witnessing scenes of distress.

We often derive pleasure from scenes of distress, both in real life and in the works of fiction. It is the object of the following remarks to state some of the evidence of the fact, and to explain the cause.

Children, when they are not wanting in the affections of humanity which cultivation and experience will unfold, sometimes inflict pain upon small animals for amusement. Crowds, in which may be found both sexes and all ages, assemble round a criminal at the whipping-post, at the gallows, and at other places of publick punishment. They run eagerly to the bloody contests of pugilists, to bull-baitings, and to the cock-pit. The Roman ladies habitually attended the combats of gladiators, and gave open applause when a successful effort was made by any of the combatants against another, although it might be at the expense of a limb or of life. A multitude is collected to behold a conflagration, an engagement between rival ships, a fleet in distress from a tempest, or armies falling in mutual destruction.

In the lighter operations of this law of our nature, we find that not only the rude and simple, but the humane and the intelligent, when called neither by business nor duty, visit jails, hospitals, mad-houses, and other institutions which exhibit pain and suffering. They who are most cultivated and benevolent, take delight in the emotions excited by the well wrought scenes of distress which are invented by the muse of Tragedy, or the genius of Romance. The power of real history is universal among readers of every description, to fasten their attention upon the sufferings it records, and to make them return with renewed interest to its sympathetick pages. We may extend our view even beyond the scenes of this life, and mark the effect produced upon the soul by the pictures of misery in another. We have seen by the experiment, how much pleasure coarse minds, which are not proper subjects for better modes of excitement, can receive from being roused by bold declamation upon the torments of eternity. They love the vehement eloquence which kindles only at the strong blaze of the infernal pit. They have not yet learned to enjoy the finer feelings which arise from enlightened understandings, elevated moral sentiments, and a cultivated taste. They drink not at the fountains of that high and holy pleasure which springs from the eloquence of divine philosophy, from affectionate, but rational religion. Still, this law of our nature in regard to the pleasure derived from scenes of distress is essentially the same in the rude and the refined. Cultivation does not annihilate old faculties and create new

ones, but unfolds, directs, and sanctifies such as we have already received in common from our Maker.

No one can be found, however perfectly endowed and educated, who does not take pleasure from the exercise of compassion, who is not willing to have his breast agitated by the sufferings of others. The Deity himself has affections. His mind is not mere intellect without feeling or sympathy. He is not satisfied with the possession of knowledge without love, with the exercise of power without a heart to be interested in the benevolent results of his providence. Every creature he has made shares in his affections, and the virtue and happiness of each contribute to the enjoyment of his own divine existence.

Having suggested some of the evidence of the fact that we often derive pleasure from scenes of distress, we will attempt an illustration of the cause. We do not suppose that the distress of others is, in itself, a source of pleasure to an uncorrupted mind, but that many scenes of distress call into operation such a variety of our faculties as to produce pleasure upon the whole, and sometimes to a very great degree. The pain of another, simply considered, is probably never pleasant even to a perverted mind. When we are excited by anger, by envy, by revenge, by wounded pride or disappointed ambition, we may be gratified with the pain which we are able to inflict; we may enjoy a malignant and transient happiness in contemplating the misery of those whom we hate. It is not in any of these respects that we design to pursue our inquiry. We mean to consider the mind, in the analysis we make of this subject, as in a natural and benevolent state, warmed with good affections, and influenced by worthy motives.

The first cause which we shall mention of the pleasure derived from scenes of distress is *sympathy*. By this is meant fellow feeling in general, the capacity to be affected by the affection of another without limiting the impression to those operations of the mind which are painful. We sympathize in the *pleasures* as well as in the *pains* of others. Sympathy, according to the meaning of the term, is social in its nature, and is one of the elements of benevolence. The exercise of it is often *ultimate*, an end in itself, a pleasure beyond which we make no inquiry for the reason of its existence. The emotions, which sympathy first

produces, are prior to any speculations of the understanding about them, and cannot of course be selfish or mercenary. To give action to such a power of the mind is a good, a felicity, without considering the relief of distress, or the co-operation in virtuous enterprises, to which it is often designed to lead us, and in which we discover a further end of its excitement. All scenes of distress, which interest our sympathy, do not afford us pleasure. Some of them are attended by such odious or barbarous circumstances as to make pain and disgust predominate. From these we fly. The degree of natural sensibility, cultivation, past associations and habits, are to be considered when we inquire into the effect which a given scene will produce upon a given mind. What may engage and please a child, may offend and shock him when he becomes a man. An execution, which might interest and entertain the rabble, would be a source of misery only to a refined and elevated mind. It is however a general law of our nature that whatever excites our sympathy shall give us pleasure in a greater or less degree. To be moved, to be roused, to be strongly affected, is itself delightful; and is, under suitable modifications, coveted by all. Apathy is one of the great enemies of human happiness, and whatever will relieve us from this we embrace or pursue with ardour. The exhilaration arising from fear, or a sense of danger, when the mind is not too powerfully affected, is pleasant and often sought, often renewed. It is one of the most lively enjoyments of the young and enterprising. This also constitutes the interest which many persons feel in the pictures of a local hell, burning with elemental fire. It relieves the apathy of unthinking minds, which have few resources, and gratifies the love of strong emotions.

Before we leave the subject of sympathy we ought to offer a remark upon those forms of it which are not thought to be benevolent. We may be made to sympathize with the spirit of anger and revenge, and to associate with others in the accomplishment of a vicious purpose. Here, however, the sympathy itself is laudable, although it may be perverted and abused. It is still social and benevolent as far as its own objects are concerned. It seeks what is esteemed to be a good for those to whom it is attached, and the gratification of it is a legitimate pleasure. The possessor

may deserve censure for his views and motives, while the sympathy itself is innocent and amiable.

The second cause to be mentioned in this inquiry is *curiosity*. This is one of the most active properties of our nature. When it is enlightened and well directed, it is also one of the most honourable, useful, and delightful. The abuses of it, which prevail in the conversation and pursuits of some of the members of society, are sufficiently contemptible, and produce considerable misery in the circles of weakness and folly. But in its genuine and elevated character it is a stimulus to knowledge and enterprise, a motive to activity and virtue, a source of permanent interest and happiness. It is connected with the most valuable operations of the mind, evidently with the cultivation of the understanding, and as really, though not as obviously, with sympathy. Curiosity makes us feel an interest in others, and thus tends to make others feel an interest in us. When a mind's curiosity is worn out, or permitted to sleep, its sympathy also has little or no activity. We then cease to please and to be pleased. Apathy oppresses us in solitude, and makes us a weight in society. On this account, those who have travelled and seen much, who have had great experience, whose knowledge is extensive and whose power to engage and delight others is unlimited, are sometimes found to be the most dull and depressing companions. They are not only without vivacity themselves, but they spread a deadening influence over the vivacity of others. Persons in every respect inferiour to them, except in curiosity and sympathy, are far more instructive and useful as well as agreeable. Whenever we find a learned and intelligent old man, who has preserved his curiosity and sympathy in the midst of his attainments and experience, who maintains his interest in the persons and scenes around him, who cherishes the vivacity of youth in his heart, while snows cover his head, and whose affections have been warmed and elevated in proportion to the enlargement of his understanding and his views, we spontaneously love and admire him as the perfection of our nature, as one who has anticipated the spirit and the virtues of immortality.

In all new and interesting scenes, whether of enjoyment or suffering, curiosity goes with sympathy, and furnishes a

large part of the pleasure whose causes this essay is designed to explain. It is curiosity especially which leads us so eagerly to seek the place from whence a report of alarm or distress may have spread.

Nearly allied to curiosity is the *love of novelty*. These two properties of the mind appear to be quite distinct. Curiosity is higher and better than the love of novelty. The latter may exist in light and unfurnished minds which have nothing of that spirit of inquiry and analysis which characterizes the former. Such minds may desire *change* merely as a relief from *ennui*; and not at all as a source of new attainments in knowledge, sympathy, or virtue. Curiosity may be cherished in a high degree where there is little or no love of change, where the spirit of inquiry is vigorously pursued in a course of life which the lovers of novelty would call insufferably monotonous and dull. Curiosity and the love of novelty, however, are nearly allied in producing the pleasure which arises from scenes of distress.

Another source of this pleasure is thought by some to be a *secret comparison* which we make between our own security as spectators, and the distress of the sufferers. If this be true, it is selfish, and dishonourable. But it seems to us not to be among our early impressions. It has too much of deliberate calculation to mingle with the spontaneous and rapid emotions which occupy the mind, and give it the interest of the occasion. If this comparison be made at all, it must be very late in the operations of the mind, and must rather constitute a part of the pleasure in *reviewing* or describing the scene after it is past.

In witnessing some scenes of distress the emotions of *sublimity* and *piety* are highly excited in the beholder, and give a strong and sacred interest to the mind. We see courage, fortitude, magnanimity, all the generous and disinterested virtues. A good man preserving his integrity and equanimity, when surrounded by dangers and sufferings, is proverbially one of the noblest objects of contemplation, and fills the soul with the most exalted sentiments while it imparts the purest pleasure.

But what in technical language is called the *final cause*, or in common language the *end*, for which this pleasure from scenes of distress is made to arise, is an important

article in the illustration of this subject. The end is, that by our spontaneous impulses we may be put in the place, and in the way of extending relief when it is wanted, and when it is in our power to afford it. Numberless are the instances in which our feelings have led us, without any previous thought of usefulness or duty, to the opportunity of doing the most honourable and benevolent actions, and then prompted us to use it, while our reason has been left to come in afterward to examine and weigh at its leisure, the merit of the impulse and the achievement. Were our passions as slow, as our systematick investigations, we could do and enjoy but little in this short life. By their prompt and powerful efforts we are often thrown into situations, where we cannot but be disinterested and magnanimous; where we open to ourselves sources of thought, feeling and enjoyment to which we should never have been conducted by cold calculation. It is a great purpose in this arrangement of Providence to unfold our powers and form our characters. For this end we must have trials and distresses as well as blessings and encouragements. We arrive at the knowledge of others only through the labours and struggles of our own minds. We cannot develope our faculties, understand our nature, and enjoy our existence, without the relations, the wants, and the sympathies of society. It is a valuable end, which is to be answered by the interest we take in the distress of others, that we are thus led to the place and the opportunity of relief, and are assisted in unfolding the powers of the mind and in forming a benevolent character.

Another cause of the interest and pleasure we derive from scenes of distress, lies in that which has been already illustrated in part by the remarks upon sympathy and curiosity, but which as embracing other faculties deserves a distinct consideration: We mean *mental exercise*, the employment of the mind without any reference to a further end, or to any result in practice. Mental exercise is desirable in itself; and is often *ultimate*, when said of the mind at large, as much as when it is said of sympathy in particular. It is not only to be desired because it relieves us from languor, which is a real evil, but because it is an independent pleasure, a positive good. We eat not merely to support life or remove the pain of hunger, but because there is a pleasure in the action. We exercise

our bodies not merely to do business and preserve health, but because the exercise is itself an enjoyment. It is the same with the mind. Whatever gives it action, whatever awakens it to effort, is welcomed as a source of happiness. Whoever thinks that happiness consists in the repose, the inaction of the mind, rather than in its efforts 'is like the 'man who should make the horses in his coach stand still, 'because he could hold the reins more easily.'

We might offer a further illustration of the pleasure derived from some scenes of distress, by the operation of a sense of *justice*, and of the propriety of *retribution*. Pain may be inflicted either as a punishment, as a motive to reformation, or as a trial of character for future reward. In any of these relations, the mind looks at the wisdom and benevolence of the object, and is thus reconciled to the pain. But this view of the subject does not belong to our plan of treating it.

In regard to imaginary scenes of distress, the remarks already made about those which are real, are generally applicable. But to these we must add the interest and delight which result from the genius, taste, and feeling of the writer. We probably weep more generally and easily over imaginary distress, or simple and natural descriptions of the sufferings of generous minds, than over distress which is real and present. In the real and present distress of others, especially among the poor, there are often circumstances of coarseness, vulgarity, deception, and selfishness which disgust us, which weaken the force of sympathy, and leave us to act more from a sense of duty than from impulse. The mind is employed in devising the means of relief, of alleviation, or of correction. It has the spirit of *business* to check its sensibility. Duty and example often require habitual self-command, and forbid any outward exhibition of weakness, or what might be considered as such. But in imaginary distress, or in the descriptions of suffering, the circumstances are all selected and arranged for the purpose of sentimental effect. Whatever would mar the interest is excluded. All the sentiments expressed are noble and disinterested, or selfish and dishonourable, according to the wants and wishes of genius, and the force of contrast to heighten the description. The mind of the reader is left perfectly free from the responsibility of action, and may indulge its feelings and its tears without the check which

the task of business or relief would impose. That one should weep over a novel, or a tragedy, and not at the sufferings of the poor around him, at the sorrows of the bereaved, or the distress of the persecuted, is no proof of the want of sensibility. He who is most efficient to discover and relieve the wants of the community, is never the man of tears, while discharging the great duties of philanthropy. But place the same generous benefactor, after a day spent in active benevolence, at the fireside of his parlour, surrounded by his family, reading a well wrought tale of wo, and his eyes will fill with tears at the sympathetick turns of the story, and the disinterested sentiments of afflicted virtue.

In a review of our remarks upon this subject, the pleasure which we derive from scenes of distress both in real life, and in the works of fiction, appears to arise from sympathy, from curiosity, from the love of novelty, from our attachment to strong emotions and excitements, from the valuable and practical end which our interest in the distress of others promotes, from the developement of our faculties and the formation of character, from mental exercise generally, from a sense of justice and retribution, from the idea of a probation in order to deserve a future reward, from invention and skill in the productions of genius, and from the social and generous nature of our passions.

THE NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW.

Sketch of the United States of North-America, at the commencement of the nineteenth century, from 1800 *to* 1810; *with statistical tables, and a new map by the author; containing all the late discoveries, and exhibiting the division of Territorial zones, boundary lines, &c. by Le Chevalier Felix de Beaujour, ancient member of the Tribunate, late French Consul General in the United States, author of the view of the commerce of Greece, &c. &c. Translated from the French, with illustrative notes and appendix. By William Walton, Esq. London,* 1814, 8*vo. pp.* 363.

Nations resemble individuals in one respect, they are in their youth jealous and irritable on the subject of the opinions the world entertains of them; and are very apt to resent with great warmth reflexions, which acquired experience, matured dignity, and greater knowledge of human character, justified them in passing by with indifference or contempt. Few nations have received more provocations from travellers than the United States; these have sometimes created, greater irritation than such attacks should have excited, when it is considered from what sources they commonly originated. A certain degree of feeling, however, on this subject is not without salutary effects. Since a proper susceptibility on the score of national character, may inspire others with respect for what is watchfully defended, and in the mutual intercourse now existing between nations, the professed libellers of another nation may be brought to shame in their own, by a manly exposition of their calumnies. It has been our lot to be extravagantly extolled, or coarsely misrepresented; the latter course has been the one pursued by almost every English traveller, and by most recent French writers. We took up this book with some curiosity to see what would be the tone of the author, and if this be not perfectly satisfactory, to those who are very anxious for praise, it has in

some degree disappointed us to find in the joint production of a Frenchman, and an Englishman, we are neither treated with scurrility, nor constant misrepresentation. The notes added by the Translator, are long and numerous, he seems to be tolerably well acquainted with the country ; on political questions he justifies the conduct of his own government, but without rancour, and though the war existed at the time, his observations are delivered generally in a tone of good temper and moderation.

M. de Beaujour's work, which appeared last year, was composed in 1810, and ought, he says in his preface, to have appeared in that year ; the translator declares that the reason, why it was not published previously, was because it contained neither flattery of the Imperial Government, nor spoke with sufficient asperity of England, both of which were necessary to obtain an imprimatur. The author remarks that he has observed the country 'less in itself than 'in its relations with other nations ; because my principal 'object was to be useful to my own, to which my whole 'endeavours were directed. It would consequently be 'wrong to impute to me prejudices, either in favour of, or 'injurious to the Americans. I have neither wished to praise 'them, in order to pass censure on some nations, or disparage 'them to flatter the pride of others ; for I have candidly 'described whatever I found good or bad amongst them, as 'a means of inducing them to correct their own vices, as 'well as to lead other nations to imitate their virtues. Such 'has been my object, and this will at all times serve as an 'excuse, if any thing should have escaped me that may 'bear the appearance of severity.'

The work is described in the author's own words as follows ; 'This sketch is divided into five chapters ; in the 'first of which, I describe the physical aspect of the 'United States ; in the second their political state ; in the 'third and fourth, their commercial relations with the prin-'cipal nations of Europe, particularly with France and 'England ; and in the fifth, I briefly display their political 'relations with the various nations of the world.'

The first chapter describing 'the physical aspect of the 'United States' is destitute of novelty. The facts and ideas are mostly from Mitchell and Maclure and Volney. We shall select one passage from this chapter, as a very finished example of the art of *generalizing*.

'In the United States, every thing still bears the stamp 'of a new country, where the hand of man has not yet per- 'fected the work of nature. The eye in vain seeks out 'those varied and fertile fields, that neat and brilliant ap- 'pearance which, in Europe, every where strikes the 'traveller; no country in the world presents so sad and 'wild an aspect.

'An eternal forest, cut only into clear spaces or intervals, 'in which hamlets are placed; sown fields or ponds; 'streams intersecting this forest in various directions, and 'all descending from the double chain of the Alleghanys; 'to the west of these mountains, small swamps which issue 'into the large one where the Mississippi flows; to the 'east, a low and level coast, scattered over with marshes, 'and on this same coast, six large towns, and an infinite 'number of small ones, all built of brick, or wooden planks, 'painted in different colours; on every side, massive and 'lofty trees or forests of shrubs which hide the land; 'wherever the eye turns, it beholds an hideous soil and 'coarse atmosphere; nature, in short, gloomy and unhar- 'monized; such is the general aspect of the whole coun- 'try.

'What most strikes the traveller, who for the first time 'lands there, is the immensity of the forests, the extent of 'the waters, their varied forms, and the movement and 'colouring they spread over the landscape.'

Some of the cits whose excursions never exceed a dozen miles from their towns, and whose ideas have not even so wide a range, would stare at this picture, which is only calculated for effect. A man who sets down with the map before him, to survey the territory of the United States, from the sea coast to the sources of the Mississippi, or from the Atlantick to the Pacifick, will indeed find that the cultured fields bear a small proportion, to the almost illimitable extent of forest, like a splendid embroidery on a vast piece of drapery. A companion picture might even be found in some countries of Europe, and with certain provinces of Germany, Poland and the vast regions of Russia, under consideration the cultivation would not contribute much to enliven the landscape. The predominance of wood in our surface, is almost every where, too great for the composition of beautiful scenery, and this is very striking to Europeans, who possess but few forests, and whose coun-

try is either a blank desart heath, or an extensive surface of grain; but there are very considerable districts in the United States', which afford many extensive tracts of fine cultivation. We are at a loss to know how the epithet coarse can be applied to the atmosphere. That of Greece and the south of Europe, is more generally serene, yet not always more beautiful, but the atmosphere of the north of France, to say nothing of more northern parts of Europe, cannot bear a comparison with ours in point of brilliancy and beauty.

We shall make an extract from the second chapter, treating 'of the political state of the United States,' to shew some of M. de Beaujour's opinions of our government.

'This government has only just made its first appear-'ance on the political scene; and certainly the first ap-'pearance of a government on the political scene, resem-'bles that of a young man in the world. In the first place, 'his pulse is felt to see whether he is possessed of courage; 'but when he has once established his reputation, he is left 'quiet. The United States would have spared themselves 'many wars and misfortunes, if they had repelled with 'force the first injuries done them. Affronts have not 'been accumulated upon them, till it was evident they did 'not know how, or did not wish to avenge them. Govern-'ments ought never to declare war, but with a just cause; 'but they ought always to be prepared to carry it on.*

'The government of the United States, since its institu-'tion, has scarcely evinced any thing else but proofs of 'weakness; and, in future, greater vigour cannot be ex-'pected from it, as long as it is conducted by lawyers, a 'species of men the least proper to govern others, because 'they have nearly all a false judgment and dull character; 'and because, with their confined ideas and mean passions, 'they think they can govern empires, in the same manner, 'as they would govern a club.'

'Nevertheless, it must be confessed in praise of this 'government, that it presents a species of phenomenon in 'the political world; and that, like the hand of Providence, 'it governs without being felt, and almost without being 'perceived; for to know that it exists, it is necessary to

* 'The Americans had not yet declared war against England in 1810; 'and they hesitated a long time before they did it.'

'seek it in the bosom of the woods, and, like certain birds 'of passage, it disappears in the fine season.*

'This government, which, in Europe, has the reputation 'of being the most liberal in the world, is, in reality, no 'more so, than the British government; and in the United 'States, there is not more real liberty than in England, not-'withstanding there is more apparent freedom. Conse-'quently, it is this appearance of liberty which most flat-'ters the pride of man, as well as his taste for indepen-'dence; and if the great art of governing a people is to 'hide the chains which they every where drag after them, 'it must be acknowledged that the American government 'is the most clever of all others. But, is it not rather to be 'presumed, that what has been attributed to the cleverness 'of this government, is no other than the work of its own 'weakness?

'The American people have hitherto regarded this weak-'ness of their government as the surest guarantee of their 'liberty; but there is still a much more real one in the 'right of petition, the only resource of the oppressed man; 'in the liberty of the press, the greatest possible check to 'the powerful;† in the small number of regulars compared 'to the great number of militia; and particularly in the 'constitutional law, which does not permit the army or any 'portion of it to act in the interior, without the interven-'tion of the magistracy. This indeed, constitutes the real

* 'The president and ministers generally go to their estates during 'the harvest, often several hundred leagues from Washington, and do 'not return till the end of January.'

† 'Without the liberty of the press, the public authority can neither 'be enlightened or responsible; and if this liberty has, like all human 'things, inconveniences, it may be said that, like the lance of Achilles, 'it heals all the wounds it has caused. This liberty is even more ne-'cessary in monarchies than in republics, because there is always 'found round every throne, even those on which the best Kings are 'seated, a cloud of courtiers which prevents the voice of the upright 'from penetrating to the Monarch. It is indeed the only channel by 'which the latter can be informed of the public opinion, which sooner 'or later causes a terrible explosion, whenever, instead of manifesting 'itself by a noble and frank opposition, it ferments in silent darkness. 'In some countries, attempts have been made to regulate the press, but 'it was found impossible to regulate, without destroying it; for it is 'not more possible to punish thoughts before they are produced, 'than actions before they are committed. The operation of the tri-'bunals alone, can repress the abuse of both one and the other.'

'safeguard of political liberty.* The army is established 'to defend the country, with the aid of the militia, against 'an external enemy; but it is the magistracy alone, sup- 'ported by the militia, who ought to defend it within, and 'maintain interiour tranquillity.

'An essential defect in the American government is, that 'in itself, it has no sufficient guarantee against the people. 'If an attempt was made to perfect this government, it 'would be necessary to strengthen it, and balance its pow- 'ers in a better manner, in order to maintain them in a more 'perfect equilibrium.† An executive power with more force; 'a senate composed of permanent members,‡ to protect 'the people against the executive power, and the executive 'power against the people; a representative body, com- 'posed of great freeholders;‖ of great freeholders for judges

* 'I have not thought it necessary in this place to speak of the *Ha- 'beas Corpus*, without which there can be no civil liberty; because this 'law does not guarantee individual liberty; and because it is common 'to both Americans and English, as well as to other free nations.'

† 'The powers of the United States are well separated, but badly 'balanced; consequently, it is in the separation and equilibrium of 'powers, that the art of constituting a state principally consists.'

‡ 'The senate ought not to be composed of hereditary members, but 'where the chief of the government is himself hereditary; otherwise, 'the equilibrium would be broken, and the senate would degrade or 'overturn the throne, as has already happened in Poland.'

‖ 'The American Legislative Body not being composed of large free- 'holders, it has been necessary to grant to the members of Congress, an 'indemnity for the time of the session. It is, however, well known, 'that it is not advisable, in any country, to pay the representatives of 'the nation, because every man who receives a salary from the execu- 'tive power, becomes its valet, and never its overseer; since such a 'man would never like to displease the executive power, for fear of los- 'ing his salary by the dissolution of the representative body. Besides, 'the representatives of the nation being essentially destined to vote 'imposts, and to watch over their expenditure, they cannot give to the 'executive power, and at the same time receive from it; for with what 'face could they dare refuse tributes which they themselves are to 'share? Add to this, that by not paying the representative body, the 'election intrigues of the candidates are prevented, who generally seek 'to guide the affairs of the nation for their own advantage; thus also is 'individual ambition disconcerted, and by giving the greatest influence 'to property, the emulation of all is excited, because all, even the 'poorest, can attain property by means of labor. Moreover, it ought 'to be the object of every government to encourage labor, which is 'the source of national riches and of public happiness.

'and magistrates; and, finally, a legislative code, clear and 'precise, in order to get rid of the vermin of lawyers;— 'such are the improvements which the Americans ought to 'introduce into their government and administration. They 'ought never to forget, that governments have been essen- 'tially established to protect property, and that the best 'of all is that which protects it most.'

The first remark on reading this extract, will be made by every one, that the reflections are intended, as well as some others in the work, to bear as much upon French, as on American politicks. What a hint is given in the sentence, where he observes, that affronts were not accumulated on our government, till it was found, that they either did not know how, or did not wish to avenge them! How powerfully and how painfully does such a remark, coming from a French diplomatist, employed in our country, recall the pusilanimous councils, the impolitick forbearance, that submitted for so long a time, a continued series of *Imperial* insolence and injustice. M. de Beaujour is a great enemy of lawyers, and reasons from an idea formed of them in Europe. It has there been often remarked, that lawyers are bad legislators; that their views are narrow, and their judgment on great state measures often erroneous; but, in Europe, the law is a profession, which requires long, intense and confined study; to attain eminence in that profession is generally by the sacrifice of literature and science, and a constant necessity of avoiding all excursive meditations on the subjects of history and general politicks, which should be the favourite pursuits of a statesman. Their tenures are so complicated, their precedents so numerous, their cases so intricate, and their forms so multiplied and tedious, that the labour of half a life is necessary to become a proficient. This state of things is felt and regretted by lawyers there; and hence it is, that in both France and England, they are little considered as statesmen; in the former country many of the faults of the revolutionary legislatures were attributed to them, and in the latter it is extremely

'In short, the first principle of all wise economy is, not to pay for 'what can be had gratuitously. Can it then be feared, that amongst the 'large freeholders of a nation, there would not be found a sufficient 'number of disinterested citizens, desirous of representing it in the 'legislative body, at the same time, that they will be remunerated by 'public consideration?'

uncommon for a lawyer to distinguish himself, or indeed to interfere in parliamentary debate except on mere questions of law. But, in this country, the situation is in some degree different, many men in publick life are called lawyers, who have done little more than read the elementary books of the science, and practised just enough to acquire the habits of business; perhaps there cannot be a better foundation for political life. But, we believe, with very few exceptions, that among the legal characters who have in this country engaged in political life, though they may have been able advocates, they have not been very learned in the law; and that our profound lawyers have either never meddled with political employments, or at least have early abandoned them.

The remark on the adroitness of our government in concealing its power, or rather attributing it to its weakness, is a very natural one to be made by a foreigner. It is one of the first things that strikes, and indeed almost confounds an intelligent European on coming to the United States, that he no where *sees* the government, and the appearances are so different from what he has habitually witnessed, that he is apt to distrust the security of that organization, of which, he no where beholds the trappings or the ensigns. In monarchical countries, it is part of the scheme of that form of government to discover their power, and make it as imposing as possible—every branch of military and civil employ has its livery, and it becomes the policy of the sovereign, that it should be always worn, to impress both his own subjects and strangers with the idea of his power. England in some points offers an exception to this rule, which is owing partly to the more independent habits of the people, and partly to the fear of the government at exciting popular jealousy by too glaring a display of its dependents. Thus a Peer in England adopts no particular costume, and seldom wears his star, except when in full dress. The distinctive mark in the costume of the clergy out of the pulpit, consists only in a very trifling modification of the hat. No military or naval officer, in London, is suffered to appear in his uniform, except those belonging to the small detachment of the guards on duty, who perhaps do not exceed ten or fifteen, and these do not go from their stations. Hardly a vestige of an army is to be seen; and yet, if those who walk the streets, at the west end of the town, appeared in their

professional dress, almost half the population would be seen in a military or naval costume. In this country it has been owing more to accidental habit, than design, that there are no distinctions of dress in our streets. A military or naval button are now occasionally seen; but a few years since, there was not even a cockade displayed, to indicate that the people had either government or police.

The author's remarks on the pay of representatives may be easily answered, and perhaps all of them refuted. The question has been much debated, and we are not singular in allowing to our representatives a salary for their services; so long as this pay is not extravagant, it perhaps takes in reality the middle ground. It would indeed be excessively noxious, if it were as M. de Beaujour seems to suppose, accorded by the executive, but it is well known to be a provision of the constitution, and a question over which the executive department has no direct control. The objections to our government have been often made, but we are disposed to be rather incredulous on the score of theoretick improvements. Experience has shewn, that some of the most monstrous systems of government have endured for ages, while others of great apparent perfection, have perished in premature decrepitude. Our national existence is so recent, it forms such a very minute portion of that career of existence, which we trust it is destined to pursue, that we cannot speak with great confidence of the future, from the brief experience of the past: yet, so far as we can form an opinion from what has been, we are encouraged to smile at sinister predictions. It has received some slight alterations, perhaps not all of them advantageous; but on the whole it has nearly survived the generation that made it, and in its progress has hitherto required no more adjustment or fitting, than what the best built ship, or carriage, will demand, on a first voyage, or journey. Whatever may have been the errours of administration, there is a saving virtue in the constitution itself, that has hitherto preserved it from essential deterioration. The difficulty of effecting any change, is a striking proof of its strength. There is hardly a state in the Union, which has not proposed amendments; some of these seemed plausible and salutary, many of them were warmly urged and ably supported, and yet how few have been adopted? In short, there may be better forms, there are certainly worse; we belong to that party who are at-

tached to this, and our feeling towards it, may be very concisely expressed, *esto perpetua.*

The description of our towns seems impartial, and certainly is not flattering; a traveller disposed to praise might have said more in their favour. Though it may ruffle the vanity of some of our cockneys, we shall extract his remarks upon them; the Philadelphians will be shocked at his description, the cits of New York will resent his sneer at Dutch architecture, and the Bostonians will regret that he should have said nothing of their beautiful environs. We may, however, attach more value to what he has commended, since he is so parsimonious of praise.

'The towns of the United States are not so handsome or 'splendid as those of Europe, but they are more airy and 'spacious, and almost all decorated with trees and gardens, 'which gives them the aspect and agreeableness of the 'country. Even in some of them, the houses are not con-'tiguous, which makes them resemble some of our hamlets.

'Philadelphia is not, as it has been called, the most beau-'tiful city of the world, but it is the most remarkable for 'the regularity of its streets, and the cleanliness of its 'houses. It is situated between the Delaware and the 'Schuylkill, six miles above their confluence, and 120 miles 'from the ocean. It forms a great parallelogram, extending 'from one river to the other, and is cut, like a chess-board, 'at right angles. All the streets and houses resemble each 'other; and nothing is so gloomy as this uniformity, unless 'it is the sadness of the inhabitants, the greatest part of 'whom are of the Quaker or Puritan sect.

'New York has a more smiling aspect, and appears more 'like an European town. It is built at the entrance of the 'Hudson, on a strip of land extending between the river 'and the sound of Long-Island, and which has been sepa-'rated by a cut from the main land. The esplanade called 'the Battery, standing on the salient angle formed by the 'Hudson and the sea in their junction, presents one of the 'most beautiful points of view that can be imagined.

'Baltimore and Boston have all the appearance of Eng-'lish towns. The first, which has been built on a sudden, 'and, as it were, by enchantment, is situated on the Chesa-'peake, near the embouchure of the Petapsco; and the 'other at the entrance of Charles River, on the small pe-

'ninsula of Massachusetts, connected by a narrow strip 'with the main land.

'Charleston, New Orleans and Norfolk, bear another 'aspect, and resemble more the towns of the West Indies.

'Charleston is built on the confluence of the Cooper and 'Ashley rivers, which, six miles below, fall into the sea, 'and form by their junction, a large canal, or long anchor-'ing ground, at the entrance of which is Sullivan's Island 'and Fort.

'New Orleans and Norfolk are situated, the first on the 'left bank of the Mississippi, 120 miles from its entrance 'into the Mexican Gulf; and the other, on the right bank 'of the Elizabeth River, five miles above its embouchure 'into the Chesapeake Bay.

'Boston, New York and Baltimore, which appear to 'issue out of the bosom of the waters, and gradually rise on 'an unequal surface, at a distance present an agreeable 'prospect; but nothing can be more hideous than the out-'side and approaches of Philadelphia, Norfolk, Charleston 'and New Orleans, built on low and level land, in the midst 'of water and mire.

'All these towns are built of brick and painted planks, 'and, with the exception of a few edifices destined for the 'use of public banks, nothing is meaner than their architec-'ture; it is the Dutch order coupled with the Chinese style, 'if we may be allowed to give that denomination to so gro-'tesque a fashion.'

Some observations are made on our military system, which has undergone various modifications since the work was composed. He thinks we cannot be safe on a defensive system, with a navy of less than ten sail of the line, and an army of 25,000 men. That volunteers and gun boats, have all the inconveniences of a fleet and army, without any of the advantages attending them. That our system of fortification is bad, that most of the forts are placed without judgment, and are too small and imperfect, and that there is not in the whole country a strong fortress or depot capable of arresting an army. He says, that the United States are vulnerable on a great number of points, and mortally so on three; Rhode Island, New York and the Chesapeake; that since the acquisition of Louisiana, the southern states are secure against invasion. That it is in the power of the English to invade us with a large army from

Canada, passing through Lake Champlain to the Hudson, while another army landing at New York, would unite with it and cut off the whole country east of the Hudson. This latter plan has been attempted in two different wars, and without success, and we suspect will never be tried again. No nation will go to war with us, who is not our superiour at sea, and it is not probable that any scheme of conquest will ever be undertaken. We shall be harassed with petty expeditions and invasions, and our surest defence against these is a respectable maritime force, of all others the most useful to us without, and the least dangerous within. As all parties appear now to be convinced of this truth, we shall not dwell on the abortive projects, and the costly experience, nor on the gallant actions which have produced the conviction. After his observations on our military system, he proceeds to remarks on our 'Police, manners, religion, and 'aspect of the country, under moral and political relations,' a part of which we shall extract.

'But if the Americans have a bad system of external de-'fence, their internal system of police is not better. Their 'legislation is an uncouth mixture of English laws and par-'ticular customs, which each one can interpret in his own 'way; and which in reality, is only adapted to support an 'infinite number of litigating lawyers, at the expense of the 'people. One would imagine, on beholding the obscurity 'and forms of this legislation, that it had only been created 'for bankrupts and lawyers, two classes of men to whom all 'others in the United States seem to have been sacrificed. 'There the merchant, who usually puts the whole of his 'property into trade, and who, in order to increase his 'profits, also frequently includes that of others, by regulat-'ing his expenses according to his presumed profits, in-'stead of his real income, frequently fails, and is consider-'ed liberated with regard to his creditors, as soon as he has 'sworn before the law, that he has not a shilling to pay 'them. There the same law that punishes forgery, ab-'solves the man who signs an obligation he can never fulfil; 'but even supposing that a bankrupt is not to be blamed 'for not paying his debts, he is at least in the wrong for 'having contracted them, when he knew he might incur the 'responsibility of paying them. The bankrupt law in that 'country seems framed to enrich the bankrupts, whilst the 'other laws appear enacted for the exclusive advantage of 'the lawyers.

'Hence we may judge of the police of a people, who incessantly fear becoming a prey to bankrupts, and who are continually tormented by the chicaneries of lawyers, as one would be by the pricks of a pin. This people will never enjoy all the advantages of their political institutions, till they have simplified and perfected their jurisprudence.

'The Americans are so new a mixture of such a number of nations, that hitherto they have acquired no public spirit or national character.—Their political opinions savour of those common to all the people from whom they are derived; and as the greatest part of them are of English origin, they have brought over with them to America all the elements of discord which agitate their parent country. In each state, they are divided into two grand parties, similar to those of the Whigs and Tories; and what is most to be regretted is, that neither of these parties knows precisely what it wants, or at least does not adopt the means to obtain it.

'The democratic or republican party, composed of the most numerous class of the people, ought to seek the frequency of elections, the rotation of the offices, and responsibility of those employed; but the leaders of this party seek only to maintain power in the hands of the multitude, in order to secure it for themselves.

'The aristocratical party, or, as it is there called, the federal party, composed of the richest classes of the inhabitants, seeks to concentrate power, and to take it out of the hands of the multitude, in order to render it less dependent, and to give greater strength to those therewith invested; but, in order to concentrate power, it would be first necessary to obtain it, and this party disdains its possession.

'The democrats unceasingly cry out against distinctions, at the same time that they are seeking after them; and in that country, as well as every where else, they are hypocrites, who agitate and caress the multitude, for the purpose of living at its expence.'

'The federalists seek distinctions in riches; and as they cannot find them in any thing that is continually changing hands, they would prefer institutions which would class each rank, and render power unchangeable.

'The Democratick party wishes no taxation on lands, 'because, by fixed and secure imposts, its abettors apprehend 'giving too much consistency to government. They only 'seek the variable impost of customs, and care not whether 'it diminishes or even fails as long as a foreign war is likely 'to take place.

'The Federal party feels the necessity of territorial taxes, 'in order to render the government independent of external 'events; and would be pleased with an imposing army and 'navy. It would also wish that the people, tranquil within, 'should carry their inquietude without, and it unceasingly 'presents to them, as a prey, sometimes Canada, and then 'Mexico.

'The Democrats appear most attached to France, and 'the Federalists to England; but the truth is, they neither 'love one or the other, and are entirely absolved in them- 'selves and their party. The errour of the Federalists is, in 'appearing attached to a foreign government, which from 'being composed of elements of discord, can only perpetu- 'ate them in theirs. The Democrats only appear fond of 'France, because the Federalists display attachment to 'England.

'It would be difficult to predict which of the two parties 'will gain the ascendancy, because the physical strength 'resides in one, and all the influence of moral causes in the 'other. The mass of the people is Republican; but in the 'aristocratical party, are all the large freeholders, rich 'capitalists, merchants, and especially those who trade 'with British capitals, the persons interested in the banks 'and public funds, in short all the timid men who prefer 'the calm of social life to the storms of liberty. It is 'besides under the banners of this party, if ever the gov- 'ernment acquires a greater degree of strength, that all the 'public agents will range themselves, as well as those who 'aspire to the same rank; and to these will be added the 'members of the judiciary body, who seek to judge the 'people without being subject to its judgment, and also all 'the conductors of the finance, who seek to squeeze the 'multitude, without being exposed to its fury.—This party 'has one advantage, it has a determined object; this is, to 'impose on the Americans something substantial, in like 'manner that is has already imposed on them the forms of 'the British Constitution; and it struggles to alienate them

'from France, in order to leave them a prey to the entire 'influence of England. Those who are of this party, in- 'cessantly rail at their government, their institutions, even 'their habits, and conceive there is nothing excellent but 'in Europe, and with them the whole of Europe is com- 'prised in the little corner of England.

'The other party only sustains itself by its mass, and is 'guided only by its instinct.

'These two parties are always at variance, and they will 'quarrel on, till one has crushed the other, or given a master 'to both.'

'The Americans of all parties by their moderation, ought 'to strive to guard against so fatal an event, and enjoy as 'long as they can, that degree of liberty which is com- 'patible with their institutions; but, they can never ade- 'quately enjoy this degree of freedom, till they agree to 'be governed by wise and enlightened men; for real liberty 'can only exist in those places where wise and enlightened 'men govern the people, and where the people have suffi- 'cient good sense to suffer themselves to be governed by 'them.

'At present, the parties in their opinions only agree in 'one point, which is in the elevated idea they have of them- 'selves and of their nation; for the Americans have hardly 'less national vanity than the oldest people of Europe. 'Unable, like the latter, to boast of what they have been, 'since they have themselves just made their appearance 'on the scene of the world, they boast of what they are 'one day destined to become. In their existence they 'neither consider the past or the present; and, rending with 'a bold hand the veil which covers futurity from human 'eye, they contemplate afar off the brilliant destines which 'await them; they fear not the vicissitudes of fortune, and, 'before-hand, point out the period when they are to become 'the first nation of the world. The best informed among 'them, as well as all the rest, already flatter themselves 'with these illusions; and with the compass in the hand, 'they measure their future grandeur by the extent of their 'vast territory; and seem to be ignorant, that the largest 'empires of Asia are now scarcely known, whilst the names 'of Sparta and Athens, which only occupied a small corner 'of Greece, are still associated with every idea that we 'have of grandeur and glory.

'In fact, the several states cannot have the same political 'opinions, because their interests are opposed. The states 'bordering on the Atlantic, seek to sacrifice every thing to 'commerce and navigation, without which they would not 'be able to subsist; and those of the interior wish that 'every thing should be sacrificed to agriculture, the princi- 'pal cherisher of nations. The northern states would wil- 'lingly establish liberty on every side, while those of the 'south seek to maintain slavery among themselves. With 'such opposite pretensions, the several states can never 'possess the same public spirit.

'The Americans have no more stability in their character 'than in their opinions. Each state, nay almost each dis- 'trict, has different manners; and in these there are none 'of those general and striking resemblances, which give to 'a whole people a particular colour and a distinct physiog- 'nomy. The people of the United States possess the 'habits of every other people; but they have hitherto 'none of their own. The climate alone has modified these 'habits; but their institutions have not yet blended them. 'In the northern states the inhabitants are bold and enter- 'prizing, inconstant and light in the middle states, and heed- 'less and lazy in those of the south. A Bostonian would 'go in search of his fortune to the bottom of Hell; a Vir- 'ginian would not go across the road to seek it. An inha- 'bitant of New-York, Philadelphia, or Baltimore can never 'die content, if during his life time, he has not changed his 'profession three or four times.

'In traversing the United States from north to south, as 'far as the Hudson, we find English manners, and fre- 'quently with the same stiffness that distinguishes them in 'the north of Scotland; but this stiffness disappears be- 'tween the Hudson and the Potomac, and particularly in 'Pennsylvania and Maryland, where the Germans, Irish, 'and even the French, have introduced into English 'manners a thousand different shades. It is not till we 'reach the other side of the Potomac, that these manners, 'strongly tinctured with those of the West Indies, appear 'entirely changed; and whether it is that this change 'is derived from the influence of the climate or negro 'slavery, it is not the less sensible in every usage of life. 'There trade is entirely given up to foreigners, and agri- 'culture abandoned to slaves, whilst the proprietor, under

'the stately name of planter, attends to nothing but his 'pleasures. The life of this proud being is a continued 'scene of indolence and disipation. Horse races and 'cock fights are his favorite diversions, and all the time he 'does not employ in these noisy amusements, he passes 'round a table either gaming or drinking. He thinks he is 'under no obligation to work, because his slaves work for 'him.

'But in the interior of the country, and on the other 'side of the Alleghany, men are to be met with more labo-'rious and of more simple manners; and notwithstanding 'this simplicity has been changed in some districts, by the 'perpetual mixtures of new settlers with the old ones, man-'ners are there generally more pure than in the other parts 'of the United States.'

The translation is in some places careless, as for example in the pages just quoted, there is mention of nations having '*a particular colour*,' this is a French expression, it is not English; the equivalent of the French phrase, may be rendered a *marked, or peculiar character*. M. de Beaujour is a passionate enemy of lawyers, there is even a degree of personal asperity on the subject that resembles revenge for some previous injury. His account of the state of bankruptcy in the United States is a monstrous exaggeration; he says in another place, 'that bankruptcy in the 'commercial towns, is the shortest and surest road to 'fortune.' The system of bankrupt laws is one of the most delicate and difficult in the whole field of legislation; to maintain the medium which avoids cruelty to honest misfortune, or protection to fradulent avarice, requires the greatest skill in the lawgiver, and after all can never be attained so completely, as to prevent frequent instances of both. It is to be regretted, that we have no common system in the United States, but we doubt if complaints on this subject are more frequent here than in Europe, at least it is true that they are very common both in France and England, and their laws on the subject are exposed to constant revision. In the mean time it is downright rant and absurdity, to consider bankruptcy the avenue to fortune in any country.

In the author's remarks on our political state there is a mixture of fact and errour, of shallowness and sagacity. A single moment's reflection would have suppressed the

observation, that we owe our parties to importation, and that we are divided, because the country from whence we came is filled with parties. When we planted the tree of liberty here, no naturalist would attribute its leaves to its being imported; but at the time of the operation he would have predicted, that it must either perish like those in France, or flourish according to its situation and culture. He contradicts himself in saying, first, that the two parties neither of them know what they want, and afterwards that the Federalists have a great advantage in having a positive object in view. This latter idea is perhaps as great a mistake, as the assertion, that the Federal party are constantly instigating the nation to the attack of Canada and Mexico.

In describing the political principles and conduct of parties in free countries, two monosyllables should always be added, *in* and *out*. It would be an interesting investigation to consider the resemblance, between parties in this country and those of England. The Federalists originally had some things in common with the party now in power in England. This party, who during the long reign of the present King have been out of place but two or three times, and then for very short periods only, when out, never opposed the government, but in a very partial degree; they always maintained a conduct but ill suited to keep alive an opposition, as their vote was still given to most of the measures of the government. The Federalists, when they first went out of place, pursued nearly the same course; they were long engaged in a contest for upholding establishments, which gave strength to the nation. Though they had lost the administration, they seemed still the patrons and protectors of the government. Their rivals, in seeking popularity, began a series of innovating, destructive measures, abortive experiments, and puerile systems, that placed the Federalists in the situation of people, who, turned out of a palace, were doing their utmost to prevent those who had taken their place, from defacing its ornaments and weakening its walls. When the progress of a very few years produced all the consequences that had been predicted from these ruinous innovations, and imbecile schemes; and forced the administration to endeavour, under disadvantages which their own vicious course of policy had engendered, to re-establish what they had pulled down, army, navy and revenue; the Federal party stood on different

ground. They found the nation plunged unprovided into a war, which they deprecated, waged with councils they distrusted, and mismanagement they deplored. They had besides suffered under such general proscription and unrelenting persecution, that they had been driven in the national legislation, into becoming a *regular opposition*, and perhaps this was the inevitable tendency of circumstances. How far this state of things, which has produced a considerable change in the position occupied by the two parties, will become permanent, must mainly depend on the system pursued by the administration.

M. de Beaujour repeats a remark, which has been made by most travellers in our country; that we have no national character, nothing peculiar, a mere undigested mass of various foreign materials; this assertion we believe to be owing to their ignorance and want of discrimination. Let us dwell on this point a moment. Superficial travellers, and, with very few exceptions, those who have written on the United States, have been of this class, may in a hasty journey through the country, and a limited residence in some of our cities, particularly if those cities are New-York, Philadelphia and Baltimore, seeing so many Irishmen, Englishmen, Frenchmen and Germans, may suppose that we have no peculiar national character, particularly, as they are most apt to associate with only their own countrymen; but what foundation is this for judging of the people of the United States? M. de Beaujour, and all others but the professed libellers, describe us as vain, brave, enterprising, and passionately fond of liberty; that we are coarse, rude, and inquisitive from our habits of equality, and regardless of all distinctions but wealth. Here are a mixture of good and bad qualities, which we shall neither claim nor deny, but which in themselves are sufficient to cause peculiarity. The truth is, that with the exception of language, which is almost the same throughout the United States, the inhabitants are distinguished from each other, though not so strongly, as a Provencal, a Gascon or a Norman, an inhabitant of Devonshire, Yorkshire or Kent, and over all is thrown a veil of national texture, as there is in France and England. The extensive intercourse between nations in our times, the universality of fashions, and the similar subjects for thinking and conversation which have been afforded by the events of the last twenty years, have approximated the habits, and

very considerably blended the manners of people of the higher classes in all countries; this has destroyed many picturesque effects, and diminished the resources of the novel writer, painter and dramatist. Prominent and striking peculiarities cannot be overlooked; a Friesland peasant, or a Spanish muleteer, would be noticed by the dullest eye and ear; and perhaps an English farmer, thriving under the effects of malt and beef, could not avoid detection. But, these are gross and palpable distinctions. Yet peculiar character may exist without these strong exteriour signs. We have no peculiarities of dress from that of most modern nations of Europe, and we are confounded in language with one of the most important. Still to those who are conversant with our character, and that of other nations, its particular traits are easily discerned; and they are as indelible as those of any other nation. We have seen Americans who had left their country young, and had been absent thirty years, and found no difficulty in instantly pronouncing upon them; we believe any intelligent American would seldom fail in a guess at a countryman, in any part of the world, a Connecticut man or a Virginian could never escape him.

When the author says a Bostonian would go to hell in pursuit of a fortune, and a Virginian would not cross the road, we are willing to consider it to be only a different mode of saying, that the former is intrepid and eager in enterprise, and the latter, from his climate and situation, is less active and adventurous. That the inhabitants of the middle States are so peculiarly capricious and variable, is only thrown in to complete the picture. Perhaps we should here remark, that we have not selected those passages, where we are spoken of most favourably, because we are not particularly anxious to repeat our own praises, but those who seek for them will find them in the work.

The following are the conclusion of his remarks on our literary character.

'It may consequently be expected, that the Americans 'will make great progress in science and the mechanical 'arts, but the same success cannot be predicted for them in 'polite literature or the fine arts. Nay, it may even be pre-'sumed, that they will never possess, or at least till a very 'remote period, a particular species of literature, because 'they have no national language, and because English lite-

'rature, so rich in every branch, will long be able to sup-
'ply the deficiency of theirs.'

'A nation besides, however enlightened it may be, can
'hardly flatter itself with being possessed of a literature of
'its own, till it has obtained a distinctive character, of which
'that literature becomes the faithful expression; and it is
'well known, that the Americans are not hitherto possessed
'of this character, since instead of forming a nation of them-
'selves, they constitute an amalgamation of several.'

There are three or four pages on the subject of religion in the United States, and his remarks on the effects of unlimited toleration on our habits, are nearly the same with those made by Talleyrand in his Memoir, and such as would naturally result from a Catholick education. He dwells particularly on the Quakers and Unitarians, and, in the fashion of the day, mistakes or misrepresents the tenets of the latter; yet there are one or two observations, that without being new, merit their attention. This subject is followed by the following remarks on our manners.

'Some writers, and particularly French, have boasted of
'American manners; others, especially English, have cried
'them down. Both have exceeded the due measure.
'There is in that country as well as in every other, a mix-
'ture of vice and of virtue; but the latter appears less attrac-
'tive than elsewhere, because it is seldom accompanied with
'those graces which cause it to be beloved, and the vices are
'more hideous, because the art of disguising them with a
'deceptive exterior is there unknown. The American has a
'crudity in his manners, which makes him appear to great
'disadvantage in the eyes of foreigners.'

'Hence does it happen, that among the foreigners who
'have been accustomed to the good society of Europe,
'some consider him coarse and unpolished, because he is
'devoid of softness in his manners, and delicacy in his sen-
'timents; whilst others describe him as haughty and vain,
'because he esteems nothing but riches and ostentation.
'In general he pays little regard to merit when surrounded
'by indigence; and the first question that issues from his
'mouth, when a stranger is presented to him, is to ask, what
'is his fortune? as if to give to each a reception proportioned
'to his riches. Names and rank are no illusion to him,
'and he classes every man without distinction by the same
'scale, viz. by that of fortune.

'Thus a residence in the United States can never be 'pleasing to rich men bred up in good society, nor to men 'of science deprived of the gifts of fortune; which uniform-'ly gives to foreigners so many prejudices against the coun-'try. But, even for those who arrive in the United States 'with the most simple habits and taste, society has there 'none of those pleasures it every where else possesses; and 'the European who is condemned to live there, ought to 'seek in his duties, or in the bosom of his family, the whole 'of his pleasures. A person lives there in almost as isola-'ted a manner as in Turkey; as if these two countries, 'which differ from each other in so many points, should be 'destined to be alike in this particular one.

'Not that among the rich class of people there are no 'assemblies; yet these have only for object, among the 'women to drink tea, and among the men, to drink wine 'and other liquors. The conversation of the latter gene-'rally hinges on politicks, or purchases which some propose 'and others accept; for the American never loses an oppor-'tunity of enriching himself. Gain is the subject of all 'his discourse, and the lever of all his actions; so that there 'is scarcely a civilized country in the world, in which there 'is less generosity of sentiment, less elevation of soul, and 'less of those soft and brilliant illusions which constitute 'the charm or the consolation of life. There a man weighs 'every thing, calculates all, and sacrifices all to his own in-'terest. He lives only in himself and for himself, and re-'gards all disinterested acts as so many follies, contemns all 'talents that are purely agreeable, appears estranged to 'every idea of heroism and of glory, and in history beholds 'nothing but the romance of nations.

'Virtue has always been considered as the principle or 'the chief spring of all republics; but that of the Ameri-'can republic seems to be an unbounded love of money. 'This is the effect of the political equality that reigns there, 'and which leaves to the citizens no other distinction than 'that of riches, and invites them to fill their coffers by every 'means in their power. Every thing among them favours 'this vile cupidity; their disdain for the agreeable arts, 'their taste for the comforts of life, their coarse intempe-'rance, which deprive them of all love and activity for 'every thing that is not personal; and in short, even their 'laws, which by their ambiguity seem to be the secret

'accomplices of fraud and bad faith. With them justice is 'the result of calculation, but never of sentiment. She is 'deaf to the cries of the wretched, and particularly of the 'foreigner; and in the greatest part of their commercial 'towns, bankruptcy, who would believe it? is the shortest 'as well as the surest road to arrive at fortune.'

'But, although honesty is not the favourite virtue of the 'American merchants, it is not, as is usually believed in 'Europe, entirely banished from among them; and we still 'find, even amidst the corruption of their maritime cities, 'some persons of great uprightness and rigid probity. In 'the country, and among the villagers embosomed in the 'woods, considerable candour and good faith is to be met 'with, but in general, good and upright characters are 'there infinitely rarer than in other parts, and particularly 'than in the south of Europe, where they shine amidst 'the universal depravity that surrounds them, like stars in 'the obscurity of night.

'If, however, the Americans have none or few of those 'eminent qualities which ennoble human nature and cause 'it to be admired, they have others, which, although more 'modest, are not less estimable, and which still contribute 'more to the happiness of life; such as the love of free-'dom, of industry, of order, and of cleanliness.'

The author then goes on with some mention of our good qualities, where we shall not follow him. The translator has inserted in this place a note to introduce Talleyrand's descriptions of the American wood-cutter and fisherman, which are familiar to our readers. These two portraits are in the most finished style of that celebrated wit and statesman, they are in the language of amateurs, rich and sparkling, pure, brilliant, exquisite cabinet gems—but then they are wholly works of fancy, entirely due to the author's brilliant imagination, and magick colouring. The description of the wood-cutter will more strictly apply to the European labourer than to the American, for here a man is commonly a wood-cutter only, preparatory to becoming a farmer, and the employment is rarely followed through life: in Europe, in the neighbourhood of some forests, it is a constant occupation. But, the portrait of the fisherman is the most extraordinary, and should serve as a warning to travel-writers, when so sagacious an observer as the French Prince should have been so entirely deceived. He says

with us, that excepting the whalers, fishing is an idle employment, requiring neither courage nor skill, that the fishermen do not venture more than two leagues from the coast, that the fisheries do not furnish a nursery for seamen, that our fishermen have no attachment to their homes, that they are cosmopolites, and a few cod-fish more or less determine their country. If an inhabitant of either of the Capes of Massachusetts, were to answer the French Minister, and be permitted a little warmth in repelling his account of them, might they not boast of their attachment to their homes, where generation after generation had clung to a barren soil and liberty; and where a life of hardship and enterprise had procured them support and competence, from the stormy regions of Newfoundland? Might they not tell him to inquire of the merchant vessels in the Pacifick and the Mediterranean, the Baltick and the Bay of Biscay, or to walk the decks of the Constitution, and ask whether they furnished a nursery for seamen? Might they not, in denying that they were cosmopolites, say to him, that during the period in which he had been transmuted from a Catholick Bishop into a plain republican, from that to an Imperial Prince with an Italian principality, and then subsided into a French Prince under a royal dynasty; they had remained unchanged and unbroken, though they had been visited by war, and seen their prosperity withered year after year by a sickening, deleterious policy, that drove them from the ocean, but not to despair; and, after embargoes and war had passed over them like pestilence and a hurricane, they were ready on the return of peace and freedom to launch their barks on the sea, and, borne on its mountainous waves, to gather all the spoils of the deep, and return with them to the dwellings of their forefathers?

There are some keen and accurate remarks in this work, blended with many that are jejune and puerile. If we happen to take up the book, and open a passage where he is talking about 'the corruption of the cities,' and the virtues of 'villagers embosomed in the woods,' we think that we have by accident taken up the wrong volume, and turn to the title, to see if it be not a pastoral, instead of a political treatise. When he asks who would believe that 'bankruptcy would be the surest road to fortune?' the *qui vult, non ego*, will be ready in every one's mouth. When he

says, that riches are too much in the mouths of Americans, he is undoubtedly correct ; and when he observes, that conversation turns too much on politicks and property, we may answer, that it is the inevitable attendant of liberty and security ; and surely is well worth the prevailing topicks among Frenchmen, to which they were restricted by the police for some years past ; the merits of an actress or of a General. He has been incautiously led away by some injury received himself, or by some of his countrymen, to brand all the merchants of the United States with dishonesty. He would find some rash men retort the same reflexions on his fellow subjects, and in both cases unreasonably. A foreigner is always under a disadvantage in every country, and very often blames others for his own mistakes. Frenchmen have been so harassed and unfortunate, for the last twenty years, that they may be excused if they are sometimes unjust in their complaints. When he says, that we laugh at all acts of disinterested conduct towards the publick, how many instances to the contrary could we cite, in the small district around us! When he says, we are incapable of generous and elevated emotions, what shall we say of the enthusiasm which some European events have caused in this country! What shall we say of those thrilling resistless impulses, that agitated the hearts and flushed the cheek of the whole nation, at certain events in the late war ; till it seemed almost justly to be apprehended, that a people nurtured in the bosom of peace, and denounced as possessing no passion but the love of money, should, in their admiration and sympathy for the perils and achievements of their gallant countrymen, be lured from their peaceable and noble occupations, to waste their unequalled energy and enterprise in pursuit of the false glory derived from war.

M. de Beaujour observes, that though we have assemblies, yet that the principal occupation of them is, ‘ among ‘ the women to drink tea, and among the men to drink wine,’ which shews that he was not thoroughly initiated in our society. Indeed, Frenchmen generally disliking tea, and being unaccustomed to such potent wine as Madeira, are prone to mistakes on these subjects. A *conversazione* at Naples, a *cercle* at Paris, a *route* in London, or a *tea party* in America, are only different names for the same thing, modified by the habits of the different nations. In Europe

they are in full vigour at midnight, at which hour, in this country, their victims are generally in a state of sound repose. Except that in London, there is a more fatiguing crowd, and in the great capitals of Europe, naturally more splendour in dress, and more aggregation of rank, we protest most solemnly against their being more tedious in this country than in others. Drinking tea seems to be considered by the author the sole object, when it is only a trifling incident, in the ceremony. Even in those smaller parties, where women sip a cup of tea in unbroken platoons, this is not the only employment, as he seems to have imagined from inaccurate observation; they are often occupied at the same time in embroidering muslin, and characters, and the spots they work on each, without apparent effort, are often admirable proofs of skill and fancy.

We shall extract his remark on the personal appearance of the two sexes, and, if we are not perfectly satisfied with his theory respecting our own, we shall excuse it, from gratitude for what he has said in favour of the other.

'And thus indeed have the Americans nearly all a high 'stature, a good shape, a strong and well proportioned 'frame, a fresh and ruddy complexion; but, in general, 'they have little delicacy in their features, and little ex- 'pression in their physiognomy. Though few ugly men are 'to be found among them, still fewer really handsome ones 'are to be seen, I mean of that towering and manly beauty, 'sometimes remarked in the south of Europe, and which 'served as a model to the finest statues of the ancients. 'They are for the greatest part, of those tall forms, ruddy 'and soft, such as Tacitus describes the Germans, who 'frequently concealed under them, no other than an obtuse 'mind and soul devoid of energy. It is perhaps to this 'vice in their physical constitution, more than to their geo- 'graphical position, that the eternal irresolution of their 'government is owing; but it is to be presumed, that their 'temperament will improve with their climate, and that the 'Americans will some day or other acquire more vivacity of 'mind, and more vigour in their character.

'The women have more of that delicate beauty which 'belongs to their sex, and in general have finer features, 'and more expression in their physiognomy. Their stature 'is usually tall, and nearly all are possessed of a light and 'airy shape; the breast high, a fine head, and their colour

'of a dazzling whiteness. Let us imagine under this bril-
'liant form, the most modest demeanour, a chaste and vir-
'ginal air, accompanied by those simple and unaffected
'graces which flow from artless nature, and we may have
'an idea of their style of beauty ; but this beauty passes
'and fades in a moment. At the age of twenty-five their
'form changes, and at thirty, the whole of their charms
'have disappeared. As long as they are unmarried they
'enjoy the greatest liberty, but as soon as they have enter-
'ed the conjugal state they bury themselves in the bosom
'of their families, and appear no longer to live but for their
'husbands. If, however, they thus contribute less to the
'pleasures of society, they nevertheless increase those of
'wedlock, which makes the American wives both thrifty
'and faithful, divested of the vices of their husbands, and
'possessing all their virtues.

'With this species of existence, are the people of the
'United States destined to be more happy than those of
'Europe ? This is not easy to decide, because this ques-
'tion, which is very simple under one head, becomes com-
'plicated under an infinite number of others.

'In the first place, the Americans in domestic life, have
'more means of happiness ; but in social life have less ;
'and if they almost live without pain, they also nearly live
'without pleasure. They do not know the art of varying
'or multiplying their enjoyments, and the monotony of their
'existence resembles the silence of the tombs.

'In the extent of their territory they besides possess a
'greater facility of livelihood, and consequently less inqui-
'etude with regard to their subsistence ; in a word, if na-
'ture has been more bountiful to them in her gifts than to
'other nations, they also enjoy them for a shorter period ;
'they grow and die quickly like their trees, and the land on
'which they dwell is not yet sufficiently dried, or, if I may
'be allowed the expression, is not yet sufficiently ripe to be
'inhabited.'

This idea of the land being too green and too wet to be inhabited, is the ground work of the theory of de Pau. The remarks on our social and domestick happiness compared with Europe, are just ; the same thought, however, was better expressed by the celebrated Abbe C—, in a single sentence. 'In Europe,' said he, 'there is pleasure without
'happiness ; in America there is happiness without plea-
'sure.'

The third chapter is occupied with the subject of the commercial relations of the United States; in which there is a great deal of false reasoning, and suggestions for forcing commerce between France and this country, which would inevitably tend to diminish that which now exists. The opinions on this subject are well commented upon by the translator, and their errours refuted. Much is said of the generosity of the French, and the sordid cupidity of the English and Americans. In contrasting his own nation with the English, he says, 'The Englishman, eager and 'proud, trades with other nations for the sole purpose of 'obtaining their money by means of a commercial balance; 'the Frenchman, the friend of glory and the arts, seeks to 'trade with them for the sole purpose of conveying to them 'the luxury and taste of his own nation.'—On which the translator very justly observes, 'If this be the only object 'of the manufactures and trade of France, she never can 'thereby become a powerful rival.' We shall quote a short paragraph from this part of the chapter, which is as conspicuous for modesty, as for truth; he is speaking of the United States.

'They have, moreover, never received from the British 'any thing else but outrages, whilst on the part of France, 'they have constantly received benefits, and even owe her 'the greatest of all, that of their independence, which they 'only conquered by her means, and which without her they 'cannot preserve.'

In describing our intercourse with England, he repeats the ideas of Talleyrand, without his eloquence, and concludes his reasoning with the following paragraph.

'In short, every thing tends to connect the Americans 'and English together; the same laws, the same customs, 'and the same manners. The Americans, like all other 'nations plunged in a thick atmosphere, have little imagina-'tion, and they are rather guided by their habits, than by 'their ideas. To this may be attributed their inclination 'to the English, who have the same habits as themselves. 'Hence arises their alienation from other nations possess-'ed of different habits; as well as their indifference in their 'relations between man and man, and even between man 'and God. Hence also is derived their unconcern respect-'ing religion, as well as their political egotism. The Ame-'ricans could never be roused out of this state of apathy,

'unless it were by a perpetual contact with a lively and 'animated people, such as those of the south of Europe; 'and their contact is scarcely with any other than those of 'the north, who are nearly as cold as themselves. Against 'the first, they have a kind of natural antipathy, and they 'prefer the English nation to all others, even the most 'glorious, because she is the most opulent; thus resem- 'bling the school-boy, who, in the course of his reading, 'becomes enamoured of the Carthagenians and prefers them 'to the Romans.'

We regret this singular mistake about our atmosphere, which we have before noticed. The author, by the frequent expression of his partiality for the south of Europe and the shores of the Mediterranean, may derive it from his residence in Greece, or from being a native of Provence. Yet, if this be the case, we cannot allow even a Provencal to call our atmosphere 'coarse and thick.' It is unfortunate, that this errour should have taken such strong hold of his imagination, because it has contributed to lead him into one of more importance; that we are 'indifferent to the 'relations between man and man, and even between man 'and God.'

The fifth chapter treats of the political relations of the United States with the other nations of the world, and from this we shall make an extract to shew the author's reasoning respecting South America, a country which will concentrate the attention of all the world, as soon as the commotions in Europe have subsided.

'Among the various regions of the new world, there are 'several, such as Mexico, Peru, and the Brazils, which 'present to trade the same productions as Europe, whilst 'at the same time, they afford productions of which she is 'deprived. Europe produces neither sugar nor coffee, and 'scarcely any of those beautiful colours that give such lus- 'tre to our stuffs; whereas America produces wheat, wines, 'oil, and almost every other production of Europe, but the 'latter cannot do without those of the former.

'America not only presents trade with the most choice 'productions, but, she besides affords the most precious of 'all, silver, which may be considered as an universal mer- 'chandize, since it causes all others to circulate.

'Mexico, Peru, and the Brazils, are the three richest 'countries on earth, in the precious metals; and it is well

'known, that it was these metals, brought over in tribute to 'Europe, which gave her the trade of India. You trans- 'fer this trade to America, if you establish the freedom of 'the New World.

'Therefore, nothing can be more fatal to Europe, than 'to take away her trade for the purpose of transferring it 'to America.

'The centre of the political world rests where the centre 'of commerce is established, because it is from this point, 'that the arts, sciences, and civilization spread over the 'rest of the globe. And it is well known, that the centre 'of commerce, which formerly existed in the Mediterra- 'nean, has already been drawn towards the ocean by the 'discovery of the Cape of Good Hope; but it would not 'be adviseable to remove it any further by the entire inde- 'pendence of America, otherwise the pre-eminence would 'be given to a people to whom nature seemed to have re- 'fused it, and the world would again fall into barbarism. It 'is to the Mediterranean that the nations of Europe, and 'particularly Spain, France, Italy and Greece, ought to 'seek to retain or attract the commerce of the world; be- 'cause it is round this sea that nature has placed the rich- 'est soil, and the handsomest race of men. It is under this 'happy climate, that all the arts which constitute the charm 'or consolation of life, are born and carried to perfection. 'Carry these arts into other climates, and they will either 'die, or they will be badly cultivated, and ignorance, with 'all her scourges, will again spread throughout the world.'

'It is necessary, therefore, in order to retain and perfect 'civilization among men, to preserve to Europe the pre- 'eminence nature has bestowed upon her; but you take 'this away if America is set at liberty.

'All the European nations, and even England, whose 'fate can never be separated from that of Europe, are con- 'sequently more or less interested in the dependence of 'America, but none so much so as the Spanish nation. 'Spain could never flourish, or even maintain herself, with- 'out the aid of America, because, being inferior to Eu- 'ropean nations in industry, she stands in need of the me- 'tals of America to pay for that of foreigners. Spain, and 'the same may be said of Portugal, is therefore interested 'in bringing America back to herself, by every means in

'her power, and particularly by the bond of religion, the 'most powerful of all.

'Notwithstanding, however, that other nations appear 'less interested than Spain and Portugal in the fate of 'America, they cannot remain indifferent. All nations carry 'on a trade more or less direct with the American colonies; 'and they would ruin themselves in this trade, if they did 'not receive in return, by the rights of sovereignty, or by 'their commercial relations with Spain and Portugal, the 'silver destined to pay for colonial productions. Give in- 'dependence to America, and the trade carried on with 'her will gradually resemble that of the Indies, and will 'become burdensome to Europe, because it is easier to dis- 'pense with muslins and shawls than with gold and silver.

'And let it not be said that it would be so difficult to 'hinder the independence of South, as it was to prevent 'that of North America. The population of the latter be- 'ing nearly all of European origin, required not the aid of 'England to defend it against the Indians and blacks; 'whereas the European population of Spanish America, 'being less numerous than that of the Spanish and black 'colours, is unable to defend itself against them without the 'support of Spain, or of some other European power. 'There consequently exists between Spanish America and 'Europe a bond of considerable strength, which did not 'exist between England and the United States; and it is 'this reason that occasions so many struggles in Spanish 'America, and will eventually ruin the country altogether, 'if the European powers do not again succeed in restoring 'their dominion.

'The European powers may, therefore, successfully op- 'pose the independence of America; and they ought to 'oppose it, in order to retain their commerce and their pre- 'eminence in the world.

'They ought, however, to oppose it the more, in order 'to repress the commercial ambition of England and the 'United States.

'The English themselves at present only favour the in- 'dependence of Spanish America, but for the purpose of 'forming mercantile establishments there. They already 'hold in their own hands the keys of all the seas; and they 'seek by new establishments on the River la Plata and the 'Fernandez Islands, to embrace the two coasts of South

'America, in like manner as they embrace the two coasts 'of North America, by their establishments at Halifax and 'Nootka Sound.

'The ambition of the United States is more disguised 'than that of England, but still more dangerous, because it 'tends to nothing less than to devour the whole of North 'America, whilst Europe is unconscious of their object. 'Since the Americans have acquired Louisiana, they ap- 'pear unable to bear any barriers round them. They have 'already invaded Florida, explored the whole of the country 'that separates them from the Pacific Ocean, and they now 'raise their pretensions towards the west, on the one side, 'as far as the Missouri, and on the other as far as the river 'Del Norte. And it is plain that by occupying the bor- 'ders of the river Del Norte, they would soon be enabled 'to invade Mexico; which, being taken in front and flank, 'would to them become an easy prey.

'The commercial avidity of the Americans equals, and 'even surpasses, that of the English. These people have 'scarcely appeared on the ocean, and already there is not 'a shore on the globe, or a sea, that their navigators have 'not explored. Whilst, on the one side, they are seen 'traversing with their light vessels, the whole Atlantic 'coast, as far as Cape Horn, from whence they boldly 'launch into the South Sea; on the other, they are beheld 'rising as far as the very ice of the Arctic Pole, and pene- 'trating into the deep inlets of the Hudson and Davis's Bays. 'The most remote and boisterous seas, the White Sea, the 'Baltic, the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, those of Bengal and 'China, are covered with their flags; they also frequent 'the scarcely known shores of the whole southern hemi- 'sphere, range along the western coast of America, as well 'as the eastern parts of Asia, and seem to fly from one ex- 'tremity of the globe to the other, with the rapidity of 'birds.

'An ambition of this kind, manifested by an infant peo- 'ple, is still more dangerous than that of England, against 'whom we have seen the whole of Europe leagued; and it 'cannot fail to be fatal to the European powers if not re- 'stricted within its due bounds. The European nations, 'consequently, ought at length to turn their attention to- 'wards America, and concert between themselves what 'measures are necessary to fix the destiny of so large a

'portion of the globe, and so interesting to all; for since 'navigation has opened and bound the different regions of 'the world together, no particular one can be neglected 'without all deriving injury. It therefore becomes the 'duty of all the large nations of Europe to embrace in their 'policy all the other countries; not to turn them to account as 'England does, but to preserve harmony between them, 'and to supply them with the means of their preserva- 'tion. Among the large nations of Europe, some are not 'sufficiently generous, and others not sufficiently powerful 'by sea and land, to extend their solicitude to all nations. 'France alone placed in the midst of them, as if to bind 'and balance them together, is enabled constantly to watch 'over the harmony and happiness of all; because, alone 'sufficiently rich in her own soil not to envy the rest, 'she besides produces men the most brave and the most 'generous.

—Salve magna parens frugum, Saturnia tellus,
Magna virum——.

'This nation, alone, deserves to be the moderator of 'others, since she surpasses all in generosity and grandeur 'of soul.

'But let it not be thought that I here seek to stir up the 'nations of Europe against the independence of the United 'States; I only seek to guard them against that of Spanish 'America.

'God forbid, that I should seek to arm Europe against a 'nation that has almost entirely issued from her own bosom, 'that has preserved her laws, manners, and religion, and that 'appears only to have gone over to America, but for the 'purpose of animating a sluggish soil, and of carrying thither 'the arts and civilization.'

The translator has attached a long note to these observations on the emancipation of South America, which he commences by saying, 'How the fatal consequences here 'predicted to Europe, from the independence of South 'America, could ever occur, really appears singular. How 'that event could bring barbarism on the old world, and 'take from it the commerce of India, is difficult to imagine.' With respect to the South Americans, he makes the following observations:

'Seventeen millions of inhabitants, placed on the most 'extensive continent of the world, abounding in the richest 'productions, and consuming annually more than thirteen 'millions sterling of European products, are certainly 'entitled to some consideration in the general scale of po- 'litical events; and a commercial connection with them 'cannot be a subject of indifference to any nation. Yet 'the horrors, scenes of bloodshed, and general ruin and 'devastation now witnessed there, excite neither interest 'nor curiosity in the cabinets of Europe; and the late events 'that have deluged the discoveries of Columbus in blood, 'and rent them with anarchy, appeared to have excited 'neither sympathy nor regret; nay, the late conduct of 'Europe seems dictated for no other purpose, than to alien- 'ate them from her, in order to bind them to their sister 'republic of the north.'

We do not often meet with more puerile, and more ridiculous matter, than is contained in the last extract we have made from this work of M. de Beaujour. The Mediterranean is to be made the centre of commerce, because its shores are peopled with *the handsomest men*, and Europe is to be ruined if the provinces of South America are made free and independent, and open to the trade of all the world; the French are the only generous people, and the only ones who from habit and situation are capable of promoting the harmony of the world. The English are dangerous, and we still more, because we pursue commerce with sagacity, eagerness, and enterprise. The translator sometimes joins in sounding the tocsin against us. We who are exploring, bringing into cultivation, and developing the resources of immense regions abandoned to a state of nature; and thereby peaceably adding to the products and resources of the civilized world, are held up as objects of jealousy and suspicion, by those inoffensive people, who are embroiling, and conquering every country within their reach. This vague feeling of alarm about us, that pervades the writings of some European statesmen, and the inimical doctrines it produces, are every way absurd. In the first place, it is beyond their power to stop our growth, and therefore to cherish suspicion and animosity is only mischievous; but still more so, to hold up the idea, that the prosperity of one nation, when it is owing to her habits of peace, industry and enterprise, can be noxious to any other.

Every nation in Europe has reaped advantage from our flourishing growth, and if some have obtained a larger crop than others, it has been owing to their superiour intelligence and industry. The gentle hint to the nations of Europe, about the necessity of regulating our destinies, is worth remembering. Europe, however, has enough to occupy her attention at present, without meddling with the United States; and as to France, unfortunate France! she seems long destined to rue her past encroachments upon other nations, and to be furnished with full employment in healing her own wounds, and conciliating her own distracted population.

The question of the independence of South America is too vast, and its bearings too various to be entered upon here. We believe most fully, that it would be eventually advantageous to Spain, as the loss of the United States was to Great Britain. Spain, by the agreement of all historians and statistical writers, has suffered at home, from her dependence on the precious metals of her colonies. Population and industry were discouraged, and the most insupportable abuses of administration perpetuated; because the desolation of the Provinces of the mother country was disregarded, while the Court could depend on the American mines for supplies, and could pride themselves on a pretended monopoly; we say pretended, for what was the real operation of the Spanish system? they were the mere bankers, through whose hands the money passed, to reward the skill of more industrious countries; nay, of late years, the money has in many cases never even visited the Spanish territories, but, mortgaged beforehand by the poverty of the kingdom, it has passed with a royal license immediately into the hands of foreigners. If Spain, profiting by her own negative experience, and the positive experience of others, of the inefficacy of the colonial system for such a country, as the continent of either South or North America, should maganimously loose her hold on these extensive regions, it would secure to her, assisted by the advantages of similar language, religion, manners, and habits, all the monopoly that would be beneficial. Melioration of the administration at home, and free commerce to these colonies, would promote the prosperity of all the world, but that of Spain in the first degree.

And, after all, is the population of South America, in some of the Provinces a very fine one, to be utterly disregarded? Is there no feeling of remorse in the most callous politician, at abandoning these provinces to a government like that now existing in Spain? To a king, who by one of his first acts restored the Inquisition, and condemned to the gallies the patriots, who at all hazards maintained his rights to the throne of his ancestors, when he himself had weakly abandonded them? To a king, the spirit of whose administration may be gathered from the following account of his employments; which is extracted from the Christian Observer for April last, a respectable English publication; 'The seventh edition of a sermon preached at Cadiz by 'Father Blasius Ostalaya, has issued from the Spanish 'press. The immediate cause of its popularity seems to be, 'the account it gives of the domestic employments of Fer-'dinand 7th, at Valencia. That Sovereign it seems begins 'the day with prayers, confessions and offices of piety; 'and then proceeded much to the satisfaction of the 'worthy confessor, *to embroider a robe for the Virgin 'Mary.*'

Though under no very particular obligations to Spain, we cannot interfere in the dispute. Indeed, our good will would be more disinterested than that of any other nation; for the Provinces of South America, under a good government, would be able to furnish many things to the West Indies and to Europe, more advantageously than we could; but some balance would be found, and if not, the happiness of the world at large would be increased, and this would be sufficient. It would be stupid indifference, or downright hypocrisy, not to wish them success.

The Queen's Wake: a legendary poem, by James Hogg. Boston, republished by Wells and Lilly, pp. 257.

That the author of this poem was a *common* shepherd, which is asserted by the editor in a preface on his own personal knowledge, is the most extraordinary circumstance about the work; the dedication is the most pleasing: 'To 'her Royal Highness the Princess Charlotte of Wales, a 'Shepherd among the mountains of Scotland dedicates this 'poem.' This seems to be realizing in pastoral composi-

tion, what has hitherto been only fabulous, at least since the days of Arcadia, whose chronology is a little uncertain. The delicacy, purity and feeling, which the ancient poets attributed to shepherds, and which their successors have servilely imitated down to the present time, is ridiculously false as regards the modern race of them, and indeed from the nature of their occupation, must have always been so; for of all menial employments, this seems, from the circumstances attending it, as pursued in Europe, to nourish ignorance and stupidity. Mr. Hogg is a striking exception, and may be considered as one of the first real shepherds who has ever indulged in poetry; though the pretended ones have deluged us with their insipidity.

By the plan of this poem, the author supposes the unfortunate Queen Mary, soon after her first arrival in Scotland, to have ordered a grand musical festival, or *Wake*, as such meetings were called in that country. At this wake all the principal minstrels contended for certain prizes, to be awarded by the Queen in presence of all the court. The performers, seventeen in number, sung to the accompaniment of their harps some tale or ballad, founded on the traditions and superstitions of the country. These are given in a variety of different metres. Mr. Hogg makes Rizzio, the Italian favourite of Mary, commence the entertainment, which lasted three days. We select this tale as a specimen of the work; there are two or three others, that possess more wildness and fancy, but this is of a convenient length, and is told with considerable pathos.

Came ye by Ora's verdant steep,
  That smiles the restless ocean over?
Heard ye a suffering maiden weep?
  Heard ye her name a faithful lover?
Saw ye an aged matron stand
O'er yon green grave above the strand,
Bent like the trunk of withered tree,
Or yon old thorn that sips the sea?
Fix'd her dim eye, her face as pale
  As the mists that o'er her flew:
Her joy is fled like the flower of the vale,
  Her hope like the morning dew!
That matron was lately as proud of her stay,
As the mightiest monarch of sceptre or sway:
O list to the tale! 'tis a tale of soft sorrow,
Of Malcolm of Lorn, and young Ann of Glen-Ora.

The sun is sweet at early morn,
Just blushing from the ocean's bosom;
The rose that decks the woodland thorn
Is fairest in its opening blossom;
Sweeter than opening rose in dew,
Than vernal flowers of richest hue,
Than fragrant birch or weeping willow,
Than red sun resting on the billow;
Sweeter than aught to mortals given
The heart and soul to prove;
Sweeter than aught beneath the heaven,
The joys of early love!
Never did maiden, and manly youth,
Love with such fervour, and love with such truth;
Or pleasures and virtues alternately borrow,
As Malcolm of Lorn, and fair Ann of Glen-Ora.

The day is come, the dreaded day,
Must part two loving hearts for ever;
The ship lies rocking in the bay,
The boat comes rippling up the river:
O happy has the gloaming's eye
In green Glen-Ora's bosom seen them!
But soon shall lands and nations lie,
And angry oceans roll between them.
Yes, they must part, for ever part;
Chill falls the truth on either heart;
For honour, titles, wealth, and state,
In distant lands her sire await.
The maid must with her sire away,
She cannot stay behind;
Strait to the south the pennons play,
And steady is the wind.
Shall Malcolm relinquish the home of his youth,
And sail with his love to the lands of the south?
Ah, no! for his father is gone to the tomb:
One parent survives in her desolate home!
No child but her Malcolm to cheer her lone way:
Break not her fond heart, gentle Malcolm, O, stay!

The boat impatient leans ashore,
Her prow sleeps on a sandy pillow;
The rower leans upon his oar,
Already bent to brush the billow.
O! Malcolm, view yon melting eyes,
With tears yon stainless roses steeping!
O! Malcolm, list thy mother's sighs;
She's leaning o'er her staff and weeping!

Thy Anna's heart is bound to thine,
And must that gentle heart repine!
Quick from the shore the boat must fly;
Her soul is speaking through her eye;
Think of thy joys in Ora's shade;
From Anna canst thou sever?
Think of the vows thou often hast made,
To love the dear maiden for ever.
And canst thou forego such beauty and youth,
Such maiden honour and spotless truth?
Forbid it!—He yields; to the boat he draws nigh.
Haste, Malcolm, aboard, and revert not thine eye.

That trembling voice, in murmurs weak,
Comes not to blast the hopes before thee;
For pity, Malcolm, turn, and take
A last farewell of her that bore thee.
She says no word to mar thy bliss;
A last embrace, a parting kiss,
Her love deserves;—then be thou gone;
A mother's joys are thine alone.
Friendship may fade, and fortune prove
Deceitful to thy heart;
But never can a mother's love
From her own offspring part.
That tender form, now bent and gray,
Shall quickly sink to her native clay;
Then who shall watch her parting breath,
And shed a tear o'er her couch of death?
Who follow the dust to its long, long home,
And lay that head in an honoured tomb?

Oft hast thou, to her bosom prest,
For many a day about been borne;
Oft hushed and cradled on her breast,
And canst thou leave that breast forlorn?
O'er all thy ails her heart has bled;
Oft has she watched beside thy bed;
Oft prayed for thee in dell at even,
Beneath the pitying stars of heaven.
Ah! Malcolm, ne'er was parent yet
So tender, so benign?
Never was maid so loved, so sweet,
Nor soul so rent as thine!
He looked to the boat,—slow she heaved from the shore;
He saw his loved Anna all speechless implore:
But, grasped by a cold and a trembling hand,
He clung to his parent, and sunk on the strand.

The boat across the tide flew fast,
And left a silver curve behind;
Loud sung the sailor from the mast,
Spreading his sails before the wind.
The stately ship, adown the bay,
A corslet framed of heaving snow,
And flurred on high the slender spray,
Till rainbows gleamed around her prow.
How strained was Malcolm's watery eye,
Yon fleeting vision to descry!
But, ah! her lessening form so fair,
Soon vanished in the liquid air.
Away to Ora's headland steep
The youth retired the while,
And saw th' unpitying vessel sweep
Around yon Highland isle.
His heart and his mind with that vessel had gone;
His sorrow was deep, and despairing his moan,
When, lifting his eyes from the green heaving deep,
He prayed the Almighty his Anna to keep.

High o'er the crested cliffs of Lorn
The curlew coned her wild bravura;
The sun, in pall of purple borne,
Was hastening down the steeps of Jura.
The glowing ocean heaved her breast,
Her wandering lover's glances under;
And shewed his radiant form, imprest
Deep in a wavy world of wonder.
Not all the ocean's dyes at even,
Though varied as the bow of heaven;
The countless isles so dusky blue,
Nor medley of the gray curlew,
Could light on Malcolm's spirit shed;
Their glory all was gone!
For his joy was fled, his hope was dead,
And his heart forsaken and lone.
The sea-bird sought her roofless nest,
To warm her brood with her downy breast;
And near her home, on the margin dun,
A mother weeps o'er her duteous son.

One little boat alone is seen
On all the lovely dappled main,
That softly sinks the waves between,
Then vaults their heaving breasts again;

With snow sail, and rower's sweep,
Across the tide she seems to fly.
Why bears she on yon headland steep,
Where neither house nor home is nigh?
Is that a vision from the deep
That springs ashore and scales the steep,
Nor ever stays its ardent haste
Till sunk upon young Malcolm's breast!
O! spare that breast so lowly laid,
So fraught with deepest sorrow!
It is his own, his darling maid,
Young Anna of Glen-Ora!—
"My Malcolm! part we ne'er again!
My father saw thy bosom's pain;
Pitied my grief from thee to sever;
Now I, and Glen-Ora, am thine for ever!"—

That blaze of joy, through clouds of wo,
Too fierce upon his heart did fall.
But, ah! the shaft had left the bow,
Which power of man could not recall!
No word of love could Malcolm speak;
No raptured kiss his lips impart;
No tear bedewed his shivering cheek,
To ease the grasp that held his heart.
His arms assayed one kind embrace—
Will they enclose her? never! never!
A smile sat softly on his face,
But ah! the eye was set for ever!
'Twas more than broken heart could brook!
How throbs that breast!—How glazed that look!
One shiver more!—All! all is o'er!
As melts the wave on level shore;
As fades the dye of falling even,
Far on the silver verge of heaven;
As on thy ear, the minstrel's lay,—
So died the comely youth away.'

The following verse in a ballad which forms the twelfth Bard's song, recalled to mind a certain story of *Peter Piper*, constructed for those who had a hesitation in their speech, and this perhaps would be equally efficacious if repeated rapidly.

Lord Darcie drew, Lord Darcie threw;
But threw and drew in vain;
Lord Darcie drew, Lord Darcie threw,
And spurred his black amain.

The author gives an explanation of nine words in the notes, which he thinks peculiar to Scotland, and that these are the only ones. He thinks, 'that the muscular strength 'of the English language consists in the energy of its primi- 'tive stem,—in the trunk from which all its foliage hath 'sprung, and around which its exuberant tendrils are all 'entwined and interwoven,—I mean the remains of the an- 'cient Teutonick. On the strength of this conceived 'principle, which may haply be erroneous, I have laid it 'down as a maxim, that the greater number of these old 'words and terms that can be introduced with propriety 'into our language, the better. To this my casual innova- 'tions must be attributed. The authority of Grahame and 'Scott has of late rendered a few of these old terms legitimate. 'If I had been as much master of the standard language as 'they, I would have introduced ten times more.' We have only copied these sentences to enter a protest against them, and to express our satisfaction, that with such intentions he was not more master of the language. As it is, there are a great number of words that no common reader can understand; and if Scotland is to continue to furnish popular poems and romances, the most saleable and useful book that could be undertaken, would be a dictionary of obsolete, unintelligible, and barbarous terms.

Those who are fond of romantick tales and ballads founded on local superstitions, will be much pleased with those in this volume, many of which display considerable fancy and originality.

Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society.— Vol. 3d of the second series. Boston, John Eliot, 8vo. pp. 296.

The Massachusetts Historical Society, was incorporated in 1794. There are some learned Societies which have been longer in existence; there are none that during the same period have rendered more service to their country. The volume now under consideration is the thirteenth which they have published; besides their labour and exertions in bringing out Hubbard's Ms. History; and, for the honour of the state, it should be mentioned, that they were assisted in the undertaking by a vote of the Legislature who sub-

scribed for a sufficient number of copies to present one to each town. The publications of this society have rescued a great many curious and important papers from oblivion; they form a collection of documents invaluable to the historian. By their efforts, a collection of minute facts relating to the early period of our history, will be handed to our posterity, which will give them a clear idea of the earliest origin of the nation, and this will be carried down to the most distant periods. As there is little to blame and much to praise in these early annals, every generation will look with increased veneration to the pure virtues and inflexible constancy of our heroick forefathers, and the influence of their example may stimulate future generations to avoid degeneracy.

The papers contained in these collections, are of course extremely miscellaneous. Ancient Ms. or small printed works that have become scarce; biographical sketches; original letters, of remarkable persons; topographical accounts of towns and parishes; documents relating to religion, war, finance, the Indian tribes, &c. &c. are all found in these volumes, and there are some articles on all these subjects in the volume now before us. These topographical and statistical papers, are very useful documents, and perhaps their interest rather increases than diminishes with time. Much praise is due to those gentlemen who have furnished them. Directions for papers of this kind, have been often given by this society; still there is much diversity in the essays given in. Some points are dwelt upon more than is necessary, and others are passed over too hastily, or entirely omitted. It would perhaps be well if the society should, through their members or correspondents, collect all the statistical details of some particular town, and then print it as a model, and send copies of it to individuals in every town in the state, who might be expected to pay attention to such subjects. This would perhaps induce some of them to prepare a similar return of their own districts. It is in the power of a respectable inhabitant, to furnish a statistical return of his own town, without very arduous labour or serious inconvenience, if it be undertaken gradually and methodically. Returns of the number of domestick animals, their current value, of the number of acres of land in cultivation, the kind and amount of crops, are important items and not usually given.

This present volume contains twenty-nine articles, of which eight are classed under the head of *History*, and fifteen under that of *Topography and Local History*. We shall offer a few remarks on some of these in the order of their insertion. The first paper is a description of Mashpee, in the County of Barnstable, dated September 16th, 1802. Mashpee is one of the Indian Colonies under the protection of the State, respecting which, this paper contains some curious information, and very sound reflections. It is perhaps not generally known, that the state of Massachusetts, has, from its earliest origin, maintained certain colonies of Indians to the present time, which Colonies have been managed and directed partly by the government, and partly by the society for propagating the gospel, the last body having we believe transferred their agency to the University; what progress they have made, what melioration of their condition has ensued, what advantages have resulted to society and religion from their joint efforts, will be best shewn by a few extracts from this short, extremely well written memoir.

'Mashpee, being south of the chain of hills, which extends from west to east along the north part of the county of Barnstable, is in general level land. The greatest part of it is covered with wood: the growth is a few oaks, but principally pitch pine. These woods, with those of Sandwich and Falmouth that join them, form an extensive forest, which affords a range for deer. In the same forest are also to be found a few rackoons. The land, which has been cleared, is chiefly on the necks near the harbours, and on the banks of the rivers and lakes. The soil of these places, particularly in the neighbourhood of John's Pond, Mashpee Pond, and Sanctuit Pond, is pretty good. Much of the Land however is sandy. The cleared land has been estimated at about twelve hundred acres. The soil is easily tilled; and produces Indian corn from seven to twenty bushels by the acre, and about one third as much of rye. On new land, being a mixture of sand and loam, properly manured by foddering cattle with salt hay upon it, Mr. Hawley has raised fifty bushels of Indian corn to an acre. On seventy-seven rods of loamy land, being fresh and new, and properly manured, his son has grown not less than a hundred and ninety seven pounds of well dressed and good flax. Not much oats

'and no barley are produced. The land at present is not 'manured by fish. The Indians use little barn dung; 'but about their hovels and stacks their land grows better. 'Some of them are farmers, and keep oxen; many of them 'own a cow, and a few sheep; and perhaps half a dozen of 'them possess horses. Beside corn and rye the Indians 'raise potatoes.'

'Of the twelve or thirteen thousand acres of land in the 'plantation, a part is appropriated to the several families, is 'held in fee simple, is mostly enclosed, and descends by 'special custom. This family land, thus held separately, 'is considered and used as private proverty by the respec- 'tive owners; and in no degree is the improvement of it 'affected by the special statutes made to regulate the plan- 'tation. The residue of the land is common and undivided, 'and wholly subject to these statutes and regulations. 'This land consists of a hundred and sixty acres of salt 'marsh, a few enclosed pastures, escheated to the plantation 'for want of heirs to inherit them, and the large tracts of 'wood land. One half of the marsh land is leased for the 'common benefit of the plantation. The overseers do not 'allow more wood to be carried to market, than can be 'spared; but it is for the general interest, that three or four 'hundred cords should be annually exported to Nantucket 'and other places. Besides these sources of income, seve- 'ral families of whites are tenants, and pay rent to the 'overseers for the benefit of the Indians. These monies 'are applied to the use of the poor, sick, and schools, and 'to the current expenses of the plantation. There are 'within the limits of Mashpee about twenty-five families of 'whites; the greatest part of whom live on a large tract 'of land in the neighbourhood of Waquoit Bay, which was 'alienated from the Indians above a century ago: they pay 'taxes and do duty in Falmouth. West of Whakepee is 'another tract of land in the possession of white inhabitants, 'who pay taxes in Sandwich. At Coatuit is another tract 'possessed by whites, who are taxed in Barnstable. These 'two tracts also were long since alienated from the Indians. 'The missionary himself, Mr. Hawley, considers himself 'as belonging to Barnstable; and votes with the freeholders 'of that town. Neither the lands nor the persons of the 'Indians in Mashpee, Martha's Vineyard, or in any part of 'Massachusetts, are taxed; nor are they required to per-

'form services to the government in any way. They are 'not however a free people. The government views them 'as children, who are incapable of taking care of themselves: 'they are placed under overseers and guardians, who will 'not permit them to do many things which they please, 'and who in particular will not suffer them to sell their 'lands to any one.

'The inhabitants of Mashpee are denominated Indians; 'but very few of the pure race are left; there are negroes, 'mulattoes, and Germans. Their numbers have often been 'taken; and have not varied much during the past twenty 'years. At present there are about eighty houses, and 'three hundred and eighty souls.* The houses are either 'wigwams or cottages. The wigwams are few in number; 'some of them are about fifteen or eighteen feet square; 'and others, of nearly the same dimensions, are of an octagon 'shape. A fire is made in the middle of the floor; and a 'hole in the top suffers the smoke to escape. They are 'built of sedge; and will last about ten years. Some of 'them are comfortable habitations in winter; but in summer 'they are so infested with fleas and bugs, that it is impossible 'for any one but an Indian to sleep in them. The cottages 'are dirty, unfinished huts.

'The Indians in general are not neat either in their persons or houses. Neither can they be said to be distinguished for their industry. Beside the farmers, some of 'the men are whalemen; others catch trout, alewives, and 'other fish in the rivers. Several of the women cultivate 'the ground; and many of them make brooms and baskets, 'and sell them among their white neighbours, but more 'frequently carry them over to Nantucket. A few of the 'women manufacture their wool, and clothe themselves and 'their husbands with the labour of their own hands. A 'very few of them make butter or cheese. Several of the 'young females go to the large sea-port towns for months 'together, and serve in gentlemen's kitchens, to the great 'injury of their morals; and others of the women lead a 'vagabond life in the country, where at last they find negro

* 'In 1808 an exact account was taken of the Indians, Negroes, 'and Mulattoes in Mashpee, and the number was found to be three 'hundred and fifty-seven.'

'husbands, whom they bring home to enjoy all the privi-
'leges and immunities of Mashpee.

'There are several schools, where the children are taught
'reading and spelling; but none of them are good; for as
'the Indians are scattered over the plantation, not enough
'children for a school can be collected in any one place.
'The females are in general better taught than the males;
'but many of the latter can write and cast accounts: and
'some of them have a mechanical turn.

'Morals are not in a good state. There are instances of
'industry and temperance; but too many of these Indians
'are unwilling to work, and are addicted to drunkenness.
'The females are more temperate than the males; but not
'a few of the young women, as well those who are married,
'as those who are not, are unchaste. The Indians, like
'other ignorant people, are apt to be suspicious. They
'cannot believe that the officers of government, the mem-
'bers of the Society for propagating the gospel, their over-
'seers and guardians, and the other gentlemen, who have
'endeavoured to make them good and happy, and who, if
'ever men were disinterested, must be allowed to be so, are
'not under the dominion of selfish motives. Too many of
'them are false and trickish: their way of life disposes
'them to these vices; hunting, fishing, and fowling, the
'usual employments of savages, train them up to be insidi-
'ous. But though they are cunning and sly, yet they are
'at the same time improvident. If they were to be left to
'themselves, the Indians of Mashpee, and the same thing is
'true of those of Martha's Vineyard, would soon divest
'themselves of their land, and spend the capital. The in-
'habitants of this place are poor; and several of them are
'entirely supported by the guardians. At times all of them
'require relief. Their stores are generally very small, as
'an Indian depends for his daily bread upon his daily suc-
'cess: a week's sickness therefore impoverishes the great-
'est part of them, and renders them destitute of every com-
'fort. Without the compassion of their white guardians
'many of them would perish; for they have not much pity
'for each other. Several of them have actually suffered in
'times passed, from want of attention. Not twenty years
'since, two widows, Sarah Esau and the widow Nauhaud,
'who were in usual health, but feeble and alone, perished,
'at different times, and not far from home. Their bodies

'were found; but no coroner was called, no inquest was 'taken. These widows might be driven out by unkindness, 'or urged by want might be seeking wild fruit in the 'woods, where they got entangled and died. At that time 'the Indians of Mashpee were a body politick, and annually 'chose officers to provide for their poor. But the elected 'officers of any people are the people in miniature; and 'among savages, and those who are in a low state of civil-'ization, the sick and the aged are always treated with ne-'glect: for tenderness and disinterested benevolence do 'not spring up in the heart like indigenous plants; but 'they are the fruits of long, of laborious, and of intelligent 'cultivation.

'Religion among these people is not in a better state than 'morals. Last year their meeting house resembled a cage 'of unclean birds: it may not perhaps be in so bad a con-'dition at present, as a promise was then given that it 'should be cleansed. The situation of it proved, that they 'took no delight in the worship of God, as the house which 'is dedicated to him was more offensive to the senses, than 'even their filthy huts. When the savages of New Eng-'land were first converted to the christian faith, they 'were styled Praying Indians; but this name cannot with 'propriety be applied to the inhabitants of Mashpee; for 'family prayer is almost, if not altogether, unknown among 'them. Not much more attention is paid to publick, than 'to domestick religion: very few of the children are bap-'tized; and there are not more than ten or twelve commu-'nicants. In one respect, however, there seems to be no 'indifference to religion; for, though there are not more 'than eighty families, yet there are two ministers of the 'gospel. Mr. Hawley, the missionary, is a Congregation-'alist; and Mr. John Freeman, a half-blooded Indian, who 'is most followed by the natives, is a Baptist.—The In-'dians retain few of the superstitions of their ancestors: per-'haps they are not more superstitious than their white 'neighbours. They still however preserve a regard for 'sacrifice rocks, on which they cast a stick or stone, when 'they pass by them. They themselves can hardly inform 'us why they do this, or when it began to be a custom 'among them. Perhaps it may be an acknowledgment of 'an invisible agent, a token of the gratitude of the passen-'ger on his journey for the good hand of Providence over

'him thus far, and may imply a mental prayer for its continu-
'ance : or perhaps, as many of the vulgar among the English
'carry about them lucky bones, and make use of other charms
'to secure the smiles of fortune, so these sticks, which are
'heaped on the sacrifice rocks, may be nothing more than offer-
'ings made to good luck, a mysterious agent, which is scarce-
'ly considered as a deity, which is spoken of without rever-
'ence, and adored without devotion. Of the fables of the
'Indians not many traces are left. One marvellous story
'however is still preserved. Before the existence of Coa-
'tuit Brook, a benevolent trout, intending to furnish the
'Indians with a stream of fresh water, forced his way from
'the sea into the land ; but finding the effort too great for
'his strength, he expired, when another fish took up the
'work where he left it, and completed the brook to Sanc-
'tuit Pond. The reader may believe as much of the story
'as he pleases. He probably would regard the whole as
'a fiction, if he was not assured, that thousands of persons
'have seen the mound of earth, which covers the grave of
'the benevolent trout. It is on the grounds of Mr. Hawley,
'and not far from his house ; and is twenty-seven feet over,
'and fifty four feet in length.

'Those parts of the history of Mashpee, which have been
'given in these Collections,* need not be repeated here.
'At the time when this territory was granted to the South
'Sea Indians, as they are styled in the deeds, the natives
'were numerous in the county of Barnstable ; but they
'were not particularly so in Mashpee. At present there
'are as many in Mashpee, as in former periods, whilst from
'other parts of the county they have almost entirely disap-
'peared. It must not be inferred from this fact, that the
'plantation is exempt from the general law to which the abo-
'riginals are subject, that its inhabitants should gradually
'waste away ; but it has proceeded from this cause, that
'Mashpee enjoying many peculiar privileges and advantages,
'in particular that those who dwell in it are sure of a living,
'from their labour, if they are willing to work, and from the
'charity of their guardians, if they are not,—has during a
'great number of years been an asylum for lazy Indians
'from all quarters of the country. They have come, not

* 'See Coll. of Hist. Soc. 1st Ser. Vol. I. p. 196, 204. Vol. III. p. 188. Vol. IV. p. 66. Vol. V. p. 206. Vol. X. p. 113, 133.'

'only from the towns of the county, but from Middleborough, New Bedford, Natick, Narraganset, and even Long 'Island. So far is Mashpee from being able to keep good 'its numbers by natural population, that several ancient 'families have entirely lost their name. We might particularly mention the Wepquish and Sincausin families, 'who were remarkable for their cunning and artifice, and of 'whom, though they flourished here not forty years ago, 'no sprig now remains. Several ancient families however are still left, in particular the Popmonets and the 'Keetohs.

'The Commissioners of the Society for propagating the 'gospel in New England during a long course of years superintended these Indians ;* and they expended large 'sums of money for their benefit,—in the salaries of their 'ministers, in schools for the education of their children, in 'clothes and food for their poor, and in the journies of committees, who visited them from time to time, for the sake 'of promoting their improvement in piety and virtue, of 'listening to their complaints, and redressing their grievances. The Report of one of the committees follows 'this Description ; and it is given as a specimen of 'the care, with which the Commissioners watched over 'these Indians. Committees of the legislature have also 'visited Mashpee, whenever it has been requested ; and 'have exhausted much time, patience, and money in the 'service of the inhabitants. It has not however been 'found easy to satisfy them, or to render them happy : as 'the committees could not give them temperance and industry, they have still remained poor, abject, and discontented.'

'It appears from the account which has been given of this 'plantation, that it has been an expensive establishment 'from the beginning, but that probably little good has been 'produced. The Indians have become neither a religious 'nor a virtuous people, nor have they been made happy. No 'one can doubt the pious and benevolent intentions of Richard Bourne, who procured this extensive patent for the 'Indians ; nor of the gentlemen, who in succession, for a 'century and a half, have watched over them, like parents

* 'Since the Revolution they have been under the care of other 'bodies of men. See Coll. of Hist. Soc. II. 47. 2d Series.'

'over their children. The exertions, which have been 'made for their benefit, are honourable to the government 'of Massachusetts, and to the societies who have so liberal-'ly contributed their time and wealth; but the melancholy 'reflection, that they have laboured in vain, perpetually in-'trudes itself on the mind. With a hundredth part of the 'pains which have been bestowed on these savages, a town 'might have been raised up on the ground occupied by 'them, which would contain four times as many white in-'habitants, enjoying all the comforts of civilized life, and 'contributing by their industry to the welfare of the state, 'and by the taxes, which they pay, to the support of gov-'ernment. This plantation may be compared to a pasture, 'which is capable of feeding fifteen or sixteen hundred 'sheep; but into which several good-natured and visionary 'gentlemen have put three or four hundred wolves, foxes, 'and skunks, by way of experiment, with the hope that 'they might in time be tamed. A shepherd has been 'placed over them at high wages; and as the animals have 'been found to decrease, other wolves, foxes, and skunks 'have been allured to the pasture, to keep up their number. 'But the attempt has been in vain: the wild animals have 'worried the shepherd; have howled, and yelped, and cast 'other indignities upon the gentlemen, who from time to 'time have visited them, for the sake of observing how the 'experiment went on; and have almost died with hunger, 'though they have been fed at an enormous expense.— 'What then, it may be said, do you mean that this plantation 'ought to be broken up, and its inhabitants dispersed? 'Shall the speculators, who are hovering on its borders, be 'let in to prey on these natives, and to seize their lands? 'We answer, no: the plantation was entailed on these In-'dians in the days of our forefathers; nor can they be dis-'possessed of it without an act of injustice. Let them re-'main; and let the pious and benevolent still persevere in 'their endeavours, however hopeless, to make them good 'men and christians. Perhaps when they cease to be In-'dians, when their blood is more plentifully mixed with the 'blood of Africa, they may acquire the habits of temper-'ance and industry; and may become useful to the state, in 'which they have so long been a nuisance: or if not, they 'are our fellow men, and they are poor men; they are in-'capable of supporting themselves, and consequently are 'entitled to the alms of the charitable.'

Much has been said and written about the oppression of the natives, by the first settlers in this country; many philanthropists have regretted that pains had not been taken to civilize them; many well meaning, devout people, have deplored their heathenish condition; with how much reason and justice these complaints have been uttered, this experiment may serve to explain. It will not be contended, that the experiment has been ill-conducted, this would be treason against the State; it will not be said, that it is injudicious and extravagant, since it has been under the particular patronage of that most useful institution, the Society for propagating the gospel among the Indians; it will not be alleged that it has been hasty and incomplete, for it has now lasted *one hundred and sixty years*. We would not, any more than the humane writer of this account of Mashpee, abandon these poor people suddenly; we would not counsel the slightest violation of law to their disadvantage, we would on the contrary insist, that the legislature should guarantee their rights so long as any of the genuine Indians had the smallest claim to the land; and preserve their interests with the same scrupulous integrity, that the English government did the possessions of the Jesuits in Canada, who after that order was prohibited from receiving any new members, still paid to them all the income of their property, while any of them remained, till for many years their ample revenues were received by only one or two individuals. But, it is surely time that the State should cease to maintain a depot for vagabonds of all colours, from all parts of the country; or keep up an establishment for producing every possible variety of *cross*, between negroes and Indians. The Society for propagating the Gospel having transferred their superintendance to the government of the University, do not feel the want of them in their annual report; though in the total absence of misery and ignorance in this country, they would have been much embarrassed by the extinction of this establishment; had not the recent plan for converting the Hindoos, offered them a resource, that when all others fail will not be easily exhausted, and the acknowledged superfluity of wealth possessed by our learned and charitable institutions, can now be sent to the Continent of Asia. Some short-sighted people, it is true, complain, that we are suffering for want of a hospital in this Metropolis, but what is this privation compared with the

deficit of bibles in the Birman Empire ?—We repeat, that we would not be guilty of any violation of the strictest rights of property, that a commencement only should be made for the gradual destruction of a nuisance, without injuring the property of the humblest individuals. But, when the 'ancient families' of the *Popmonets* and the *Keetohs*, shall experience the same fate that has already befallen the *Wepquish* and *Sincausin*, as well as the *Julian* and *Æmilian* races, that this colony shall then be dissolved, and our posterity released from its burthen and disgrace.

The fourth paper is entitled 'Notes on Nantucket,' from which we extract an account of a very ingenious clock constructed by Mr. Folger, one of the Senators of the State, and of very considerable scientifick attainments.

'Another object, which deserves attention, is a clock con-'structed by Mr. Walter Folger, and of which the follow-'ing is a description in his own words : "The clock, be-'side what is usual in clocks, exhibits the rising and setting 'of the sun, which is represented by a flat plate moving be-'hind the dial plate : the dial is open so far as to admit the 'sun's being seen as long as it is above the horizon in Lat. 41° '16'. There are sliding plates, that close the opening on 'each side, and serve as an horizon: their motions are so 'regulated, as to cause the sun to make his appearance at 'the time he does in the heavens every day in the year, 'and set at the time the sun should set. The moon is re-'presented by a silver ball, one half of which is made 'black : it appears, is seen, and disappears behind the dial 'in the same manner the sun does, rising at the time the 'moon does in the heavens, and setting at the time the 'moon sets. The moon turns on its axis once in a lunation, 'and by that means appears with all the different phases 'the moon appears with. The motion given to the hori-'zons, that regulate the rising and setting of the moon, is 'more complicated than that of the sun. It takes the time of 'eighteen years and two hundred and twenty-five days to 'perform a revolution of one of the wheels, which is con-'tinually in motion. The date of the year is shown by the 'clock : the date changes on the first day of the year : one 'wheel for the purpose of showing it will take a hundred 'years to turn once round. The motion of that wheel is 'not a continued motion, but rests for the space of ten 'years. The time the sun rose and set may be seen by

'the clock at any time of the day; also the sun's declina-
'tion and place in the ecliptick; and the moon's declina-
'tion.'

We also extract a part of the writer's account of the Indians, who originally possessed this Island. At the period this was written, there were but two Indian men and six women left on the island, though the population was very considerable when it was first visited by the whites.

'When the English first came to Nantucket, it was well
'inhabited by Indians. There were two tribes on the
'island, one at the west, and the other at the east end. The
'western tribe is supposed to have found its way thither
'from the Main, by the way of Martha's Vineyard, Muske-
'get, and Tuckanuck Islands. The eastern tribe proba-
'bly came directly across the Sound, which it might be in-
'duced to do, as in particular states of the air, Nantucket is
'visible from the southern shore of the county of Barnsta-
'ble. But there was a tradition or fable among them, that
'an eagle having seized and carried off in his talons a papoos,
'the parents followed him in their canoe till they came to
'Nantucket, where they found the bones of their child
'dropped by the eagle.*

'The Indians of Nantucket were a people who were des-
'titute of most of the arts of life. They were acquainted
'with roasting, but not with boiling. Though they had all
'the materials on the shore; yet they could not, like the
'Narragansets, coin wompompeag. They cultivated no
'plants, except maize, beans, squashes, and tobacco.
'To each family was assigned a portion of land, equal to
'about a quarter of an acre, which they broke up as well as
'they could with the rude tools that they possessed, called
'in their language mattoks, assisting each other in a very
'friendly manner. They could now and then kill a bird;
'and there were a few deer: goat skins, but not the animal
'itself, were found by the English on the island. Fish
'could be obtained in the harbours, and on the coast; and
'shell fish were abundant. During the winter, however,
'they frequently suffered the extremities of famine. Their
'clothes were sometimes skins, but for the most part coarse
'mats, made of grass.

* 'Mr. Alden, in his Memorabilia of Yarmouth, gives an Indian fa-
'ble, which differs somewhat from this. See Coll. of Hist. Soc. V. 56.
'1st. Series.'

'The two tribes were hostile to each other. Tradition 'has preserved a pleasing instance of the force of love. The 'western tribe having determined to surprise and attack the 'eastern tribe, a young man of the former, whose mistress 'belonged to the latter, being anxious for her safety, as soon 'as he was concealed by the shades of night, ran to the 'beach, flew along the shore below the limit of high water, saw 'his mistress a moment, gave her the alarm, and returned 'by the same route before day-break : the rising tide wash-'ed away the traces of his feet. The next morning he ac-'companied the other warriours of the tribe to the attack : 'the enemy was found prepared ; and no impression could 'be made on them. He remained undetected, till several 'years after peace being restored between the two tribes, 'and the young man having married the girl, the truth came 'to light.'

The fifth paper in this volume is a description of Duke's County containing much minute detail, which serves the purpose of these collections by accumulating materials for history. We select from it a single passage, both for its mention of the oldest vestige of the European emigrants in this part of the Continent, and also for the romantick and secure spot they selected. In describing the Elizabeth Islands, the writer makes the following remarks on one of them.

'Cuttyhunk has cliffs of clay, which are continually 'breaking down, and of consequence the island is diminish-'ing. The other Elizabeth Islands are also wasting gradu-'ally. "At the west end, on the north side, is a pond of 'fresh water, three quarters of a mile in length. In the 'middle of its breadth, near the west end, is a rocky islet, 'containing near an acre of ground."* On this islet Dr. 'Belknap, in 1797, had the satisfaction of finding the cellar 'of a store house, which was built by Gosnold, when he 'discovered the Elizabeth Islands in 1602. It is a vestige 'of the first work performed by Europeans on the New-'England shores. Here they first penetrated the earth ; 'here the first edifice was erected. Only two centuries 'have passed away ; and from this humble beginning have 'arisen cities, numerous, large, and fair, in which are enjoy-'ed all the refined delights of civilized life.'

The sixth article is a return of the number of slaves in Massachusetts in 1754, copied from the returns in the Se-

* Belknap's Biog. II. 114.

cretary of State's office ; some towns are wanting, but the whole number given in was 2713. The State probably contained about three thousand. This may serve to encourage those states, who still hold a *few* slaves, and who can allege none of the reasons for it, that are assigned by the southern states, to imitate our example, and free themselves from this blot on their institutions.

There is a very copious account of Plymouth ; one of the most interesting towns in the history of Massachusetts, the place of the first landing of the forefathers of New-England. We shall extract from an anecdote, respecting the rock on which they landed.

'*Forefather's Rock.* The face of this rock was, in the 'year 1775, taken from its original bed, and placed by the 'side of a 'liberty pole,' which at that time was erected 'near the Court House, and where the rock still remains. 'The base of the rock yet continues, in open view, in its 'original situation, at the head of the longest wharf in Ply-'mouth, built on the precise spot which uniform tradition 'assigns as its scite. There is a tradition, as to the person 'who first leaped upon this rock, when the families came 'on shore, Dec. 11, 1620 : it is said to have been a young 'woman, Mary Chilton.* This information comes from a 'source so correct, as induces us to admit it ; and it is a 'very probable circumstance, from the natural impatience 'in a young person, or any one, after a long confinement on 'ship board, to reach the land, and to escape from the 'crowded boat. We leave it therefore, as we find it, in 'the hands of history, and the fine arts.

In the description of Kingston, which follows that of Plymouth, there is a repartee to an illiberal remark of the famous Whitfield, that is worth transcribing.

* 'Among those who came in the May Flower, were, Richard Chil-'ton, (who died the first winter) Mary and Susanna Chilton. Mary, it 'is said, married Mr. John Winslow ; and Susanna, Mr. —— Latham. 'The descendants of Mr. Winslow are in Boston ; and of Mr. La-'tham, in Bridgewater. The tradition, we have reason to believe, is 'in both families. We are disposed, however, to generalise the anec-'dote. The first generation doubtless knew who came on shore in the 'first boats ; the second generation related it with less identity ; the 'third and fourth with still less ; like the stone thrown on the calm 'lake, the circles, well defined at first, become fainter as they recede. 'For the purposes of the arts, however, a female figure, typical of 'faith, hope, and charity, is well adapted.'

'In a company of gentlemen, where Father Flynt, who 'was a preacher, and many years a tutor at Cambridge, was 'present, Mr. Whitfield said: "It is my opinion, that Dr. 'Tillotson is now in hell for his heresy." Father Flynt 'replied, "It is my opinion, that you will not meet him 'there." '

The Society have continued in this volume the republication of a curious book now very scarce, published in 1633, written by Mr. Johnson of Woburn, it is called 'Wonder-working Providence of Sion's Saviour in New 'England,' and contains many facts relating to the characters and events of that period. The part contained in the present volume principally relates to the first gathering of the churches, and to a description of their pastors; every character is given in rhyme, as well as in prose. The verses are of the school of Sternhold and Hopkins, but, though lost on common readers, would be a pearl to the Antiquary. There is also a private letter from an officer, Major Savage, who commanded one of the Regiments in the expedition of Sir W. Phipps against Quebec; this letter which had become extremely scarce, affords some interesting facts relating to that expedition.

The only piece of Biography is the life, or as it is called by the author 'Notices of General Lincoln;' it is written with plainness and without pretension, and bears marks of an able hand. General Lincoln was one of the patriots and heroes of the revolution, whom we have always regarded with peculiar veneration and respect. There was a calm dignity in his manner, a graceful mildness in his demeanour, blended with steady firmness and cool intrepidity in his disposition, that softened and ennobled all the harsh and ferocious characteristicks of his profession. We have seldom seen a man in any country, who had more the appearance of the gentleman, who possessed more of the spotless integrity and genuine honour, that commands such high respect for military men, when combined with the other requisites of a soldier. We shall extract the conclusion of this memoir.

'In General Lincoln's character, strength and softness, 'the estimable and amiable qualities were happily blended. 'His mind was quick and active, yet discriminating and 'sound. He displayed a fund of thought and information, 'derived from select, though limited reading, from careful 'observation of men and things, from habits of thinking,

'and from conversation. A degree of enthusiasm, or ex-
'altation of feeling upon the objects of his pursuit, belonged
'to his temperament, but it was under the control of good
'sense and sober views. He was patient and cool in de-
'liberation ; in execution, prompt and vigorous. A real and
'effective, but not forward or bustling energy pertained to
'his character. His virtues maintained their proper bounds
'and were well tempered together. He was conspicuous
'for plain, strict, inflexible integrity, united however with
'prudence, candour, a liberal and compassionate disposi-
'tion. He had, it was said, by constitution, strong pas-
'sions, but they were so disciplined by reason and religion,
'and qualified and counteracted by good sentiments and
'generous feelings, that they never betrayed him into any
'extravagance, nor suffered him to give way to any im-
'pulse of anger. His composure and self possession, his
'exemption from any apparent weakness or folly, his uniform
'discretion and integrity made him revered, whilst the
'goodness of his disposition, and his frank and cordial man-
'ners, engaged affectionate regard. He knew how to ex-
'ercise command without exciting aversion. Paying defer-
'ence to the rights and feelings of others, whether present
'or absent, his own were not likely to suffer injury or in-
'sult. He made no extraordinary demands of attention,
'but had an exact perception of propriety in intercourse.
'By an expressive look, which was understood, by an
'anecdote, by pleasant irony, or more directly, he was sure
'to notice and to repress any symptoms of impertinence or
'rudeness which any might show in his presence.

'He was always an early riser, temperate in his habits,
'frugal without parsimony, diligent and methodical in his
'business, and able to do much without inconvenience or
'hurry. The qualities and habits mentioned, with a ra-
'tional religious faith and sincere piety, would naturally be
'attended by ease and health of heart. Gen. Lincoln was
'habitually cheerful, and was accustomed to look on the
'bright side of objects. He was tender, but not given to
'indulging the wail of sensibility, or a spirit of repining and
'discontent. He believed in the great preponderance of
'good in the human condition ; often mentioning particular-
'ly the resources and comforts accommodated to the suc-
'cessive periods of life, as affording proofs of the goodness
'of the Creator. He thought gratitude, acquiescence and
'hope a tribute, at all times due to a wise and benevolent

'Providence. He was called to encounter adversity in 'different forms; some of which were of a nature to dis-'hearten an ordinary man; but his fortitude and equanimity 'never forsook him, and he always maintained an erect at-'titude.

'As a military commander, he was judicious, brave, de-'termined, indefatigable. His distinguished merit in this 'character was never denied; whilst all have not agreed 'in opinion upon some of his plans in the southern com-'mand. Being a soldier of the revolution, he had to antici-'pate the effect of experience, and might commit mistakes. 'He was surrounded by difficulties: he met extraordinary 'disappointments in his calculations upon supplies and suc-'cours. In the principal instances which issued unfortu-'nately, the storming of Savannah and the siege of Charles-'ton, he had but a choice of evils; and which ever way he 'decided, the course rejected would have seemed, to many 'persons, more eligible. He had true courage without 'rashness. His calmness in danger seemed like uncon-'cern; but he affirmed that he never was exposed, without 'feeling deeply interested for his own life and the lives of 'others.

'At the siege of Savannah, the British commander, Gen. 'Prevost, when he had determined to defend the place and 'apprehended a storm by the besiegers, requested the com-'manding generals of the allied army to suffer him to send 'out of Savannah the women and children. The refusal of 'this request has been condemned as inhuman by an English 'historian of the war,* and as unaccountable by an American 'writer of the southern campaigns.† The generals consid-'ered the British commander, under the circumstances, as 'responsible, and had strong military reasons for the refu-'sal. They were so situated in respect to time, that they 'must succeed soon, or not at all; and they doubtless were 'confident of carrying the place. The answer of the 'British commander's request intimates the grounds of re-'fusal.‡

* 'Stedman.' † 'Gen. H. Lee.'

‡ 'Sir, *Camp before Savannah*, Oct. 6, 1779.

'We are persuaded that your excellency knows all that your 'duty prescribes; perhaps your zeal has already interfered with your 'judgment. The Count d'Estaing, in his own name, notified to you, 'that you would be personally and alone responsible for the conse-'quences of your obstinacy. The time, which you informed him in 'the commencement of the siege would be necessary for the arrange-

'In civil functions of a publick nature, such as the office 'of Lieut. Governour, magistrate, and member of the legis- 'lature or other political bodies, he took the plain way of 'probity and patriotism, not despising popular favour, but 'never pursuing it as an end, and never thinking it an equi- 'valent for the sacrifice of principle. By the change of 'political parties in the Commonwealth, his agency in sup- 'porting the laws and suppressing the insurrection came, 'at one time, to be considered as demerit, and the office 'of Lieut. Governour, when held by him, was, by this 'sinister influence, deprived of the limited salary, which 'the second magistrate of the state had always before 'received.

'General Lincoln was a federalist of the Washington 'school. From 1801, the party, which had opposed the 'federal administration, held the supreme power in the 'general government. He experienced the benefit of his 'weight of character, and the sense entertained by the 'community of his publick services, in being suffered to 'retain his office of collector.

'Religion exerted its full influence over the mind and 'conduct of General Lincoln. He was a christian of the 'antisectarian, catholic, or liberal sect. He was firm in 'his faith, serious and affectionate in his piety, without 'superstition, fanaticism or austerity. He was from early 'manhood a communicant, and for a great part of his life 'a deacon of the church. He never shunned an avowal 'of his belief, nor feared to appear what he was, nor per- 'mitted the reality of his convictions to remain in doubt. 'But avoiding ostentation and bitterness, thinking the ex- 'cellence of the tree more apparent in the fruit than the 'leaves, and being a good man, the best proof of being a 'good christian, he was able to reconcile fidelity to his 'religion with the spirited and graceful exercise of his mili- 'tary functions and all the offices of civil and social life.

'ment of articles, including the different orders of men in your town, 'had no other object than that of receiving succour. Such conduct, Sir, 'is sufficient to forbid every intercourse between us, which might 'occasion the least loss of time; besides, in the present application, 'latent reasons may again exist; there are military ones, which, in 'frequent instances, have prevented the indulgence you request. It 'is with regret that we yield to the austerity of our functions; and we 'deplore the fate of those persons, who will be the victims of your 'conduct, and the delusion which appears to prevail in your mind.'

'Amidst the licence so common in armies, no profane 'expression or irreverent sally escaped his lips; and no 'stain came upon the purity of his life.

'The person and air of General Lincoln betokened his 'military vocation. He was of middle height, and erect, 'broad chested, muscular, in his latter years corpulent, 'with open, intelligent features, a venerable and benign 'aspect. His manners were easy and unaffected, but cour- 'teous and polite. He delighted in children, and made 'himself loved by them. He admitted young persons of 'merit to his intimacy; let them into his sentiments on in- 'teresting subjects, and was forward to aid their reputa- 'tion and advancement in the world. He had a high relish 'for the pleasures of conversation, in which he bore his 'part without tediousness or prolixity, with good sense, 'delicate raillery, well timed anecdote, and always a moral 'vein. He was a constant and zealous friend. If his 'judgment was ever surprised by his feelings, it was when 'he was requested to take pecuniary responsibilities for an 'old companion in arms, which subjected him to much 'temporary inconvenience, though not great ultimate loss.

'His house was the seat of real hospitality. The acces- 'sion to his income, during the last twenty years of his 'life, was applied to a decent provision for his advancing 'age, to the increase of his charities, and to the benefit of 'his numerous family. He twice made a distribution of 'considerable sums among his children. As they had good 'habits, and knew the use of property, he thought it unne- 'cessary to leave their claims upon his estate to be chiefly 'or wholly answered by his executor.

'He lived in great conjugal happiness with the wife of 'his youth more than fifty five years, and had sons and 'daughters, in whom, and in their descendants, he found 'the greatest solace. He saw his children established 'chiefly in his town or in neighbouring places. His eldest 'son, a lawyer of rising reputation in Boston, died much 'lamented at twenty eight years of age. In these domestick 'relations, General Lincoln was distinguished by his accu- 'rate and amiable discharge of every duty.

'May the principles and virtues of such men as General 'Lincoln be exemplified in successive generations in our 'country, that the blessings purchased by the wisdom and 'valour of the fathers may be inherited by the children to 'the latest time. 'P. C.'

At the conclusion of the book is given a correspondence respecting Hubbard's Ms. History, which we only notice to do away the impression which seems to be entertained, that the imperfect sheets may be recovered from Dr. Oliver; accident made us acquainted with the circumstances of the correspondence. As for Dr. Oliver, his letter requires no comment, it furnishes a very correct idea, of what kind of person he is, but the society appear to think that he has the Ms. This is not the case; when he found such a thing was inquired for, he immediately wrote to Mr. Hutchinson, a son of the late Governor Hutchinson, hoping he might have the Ms. and desirous of getting it into his possession; when he could not succeed in this, pretending to have it, he wrote the precious epistle here published.

M. Tulii Ciceronis opera omnia, ex recensione novissima Io. Augusti Ernesti, cum ejusdem notis et clave Ciceroniana. Editio prima Americana Tom. 8. *Bostoniae. Wells et Lilly.*

We have hitherto neglected, what was from the first our wish and intention, the saying a few words in favour of the undertaking of our publishers, to give a complete edition of the ancient classicks, if sufficient patronage could be obtained for this important enterprise. They commenced with the works of Cicero, of which the volume at the head of this article has been recently published. Those who knew how perfectly Mr. Wells was qualified for the task, anticipated the correctness with which it has been thus far executed. The edition, without any useless luxury of ornament, combines neatness, convenience and beauty. Among the numerous editions of Cicero, this which has been selected, is universally admitted to be one of the most accurate and complete; prepared by one of the latest, as well as one of the ablest, of the commentators who have profitted, with the greatest care and fidelity, by all that was valuable in the annotations of previous editors. All who have examined the previous volumes agree, that this American edition is not surpassed in accuracy by any of those of Europe.

Persons who wish to make a present to a young man in whom they take an interest, can offer no book more valuable than Cicero. There is no author whose whole works may

be so safely entrusted to youth and innocence. They contain no wild metaphysicks to pervert his mind, or licentious sentiments to corrupt his morals. Money can never be lost, invested in this great classick. His works will always possess a standard value. There is another circumstance, that will have some weight with those who are versed in the mysteries of bibliography; the edition is not a large one, and a copy of the *first* American edition will hereafter possess a peculiar value.

To dwell upon the merits of Cicero, at this period, would indeed be preposterous; it would be exposing ourselves to receive the answer given to the old Greek Sophist for his eulogy on Hercules, "who ever thought of blaming him?" But we cannot refrain from remarking, how strongly he ought to excite the admiration and reverence, of all the lovers of freedom and republican governments. He, beyond all other great characters of antiquity, deserves the homage of virtuous and enlightened freemen. He, of all others, is the model which should be taken, to excite the emulation of talents, patriotism, and virtuous ambition. There is no other who may so safely be held up to the imitation of young men of liberal education, who are destined to pursue a course of publick speaking and political life. His legal science and skill, his eloquence, his sound principles of politicks, philosophy and morality, were acknowledged by his contemporaries, and will be reverenced by all succeeding ages, so long as learning and virtue shall have any votaries on earth. High as his fame was elevated, it yet remains unshaken. 'It was a 'solid fabrick and *has* supported the laurels which adorn it.' Before the tribunals of justice he was the protector of innocence, the avenger of the injured, the dread of traitors, and the scourge of profligate tyrants in power. He governed the councils of the republick at the height of its splendour and prosperity, and when it fell a prey to faction and conspiracy, he resigned his head without resistance to the executioner. From his days to our own, no government has ever existed, where this illustrious man could have pursued the same course, or held the same rank. Under our institutions, should the same combination of virtue and talents again appear, after a lapse of two thousand years, it may follow the same exalted destiny, from the bar to the senate, from the senate to the chief magistracy. Should such a man ever again exist, may his own fate and that of his country be more auspicious.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNALS.

Cambridge, by Professor Farrar.

AUGUST, 1815.

Day.	Barometer.			Thermometer.			Face of Sky.		Winds.	
	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	7 A. M.	9 P. M.	7 A. M.	9 P. M.
1	29.85	29.78	29.91	73	90	68	Clo.	Fair	W.	N.W.1
2	29.94	29.92	29.93	62	78	66	Fair	Clo.	N.W.	W.
3	29.95	29.91	29.95	57	74	57	Fair	Fair	N.W.2	N.W.1
4	29.97	29.93	29.92	53	76	64	Fair	Fair	N.W.1	
5	29.81	29.69	29.74	65	72	63	Clo.	Clo.	S.W.	E.
6	29.71	29.89	29.99	57	71	58	Clo.	Fair	N.W.2	N.W.
7	30.07	30.04	30.08	54	78	65	Fair	Fair	W.	W.
8	30.14	30.15	30.16	63	75	63	Fair	Clo.	N.	E.1
9	30.16	30.17	30.13	62	74	56	Clo	Fair	N.1	N.W.
10	30.15	30.11	30.02	62	70	63	Clo.	Clo.	E.	S.
11	30.00	29.97	30.00	62	70	60	Clo.	Clo.	S.E.1	S.
12	30.14	30.12	30.11	63	76	61	Clo.	Clo.	N.1	N.E.2
13	30.03	30.01	30.01	58	64	62	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.2	N.1
14	29.99	29.95	29.94	62	73	62	Clo.	Fair	E.	W.1
15	30.00	29.97	30.04	62	83	67	Clo.	Clo.	W.1	S.W.
16	30.05	30.06	29.94	64	73	65	Clo.	Clo.	S.W.	S.W.
17	29.93	30.01	30.11	64	70	63	Clo.	Clo.	N.	N.
18	30.19	30.15	30.17	64	72	65	Clo.	Clo.	E.	E.
19	30.02	30.02	30.00	70	75	66	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.	N.
20	30.00	29.96	29.94	65	68	65	Clo.	Clo.	N.	W.
21	29.98	29.97	29.98	62	69	63	Clo.	Clo.	N.	N.E.
22	29.99	30 00	30.02	62	68	60	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.	N.E.
23	30.03	30.09	30.11	62	67	62	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.	N.E.
24	30.14	30.11	30.06	63	71	62	Clo.	Clo.	E.	E.2
25	30.03	30.04	30.04	62	67	60	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.1	N.E.
26	30.01	30.02	30.01	65	81	70	Clo.	Fair	S.W.	W.
27	30.06	30.04	30.12	64	82	62	Fair	Fair	N.W.	W.
28	30.13	30.22	30.26	60	78	64	Clo.	Fair	W.	E.
29	30.31	30.14	30.25	64	78	65	Fair	Fair	E.	W.
30	30.20	30.15	30.12	68	90	71	Fair	Clo.	W.	S.W.
31	30.02	29.98	29.99	67	68	63	Fair	Fair	N.E.3	N.E.2
	30.31	30.22	30.26	73	90	71	Greatest.			
	30.035	30.024	30.034	62.77	73.58	63.45	Mean.			
	29.71	29.69	29.74	53	64	56	Least.			

Shower on the 1st, P. M.; on the 3d, A. M.; on the 5th, A. M.; on the 14th, P. M.; on the 19th, P. M.; on the 20th, P. M.; and a great rain, from the 16th to the 18th. Whole quantity of rain during the month, 5,32 inches.

SEPTEMBER, 1815.

Day.	Barometer. 7 A. M.	Barometer. 2 P. M.	Barometer. 9 P. M.	Thermometer. 7 A. M.	Thermometer. 2 P. M.	Thermometer. 9 P. M.	Face of Sky. 7 A. M.	Face of Sky. 9 P. M.	Winds. 7 A. M.	Winds. 9 P. M.
1	30.26	30.20	30.29	78	68	52	Fair	Fair	N.W.3	W.
2	30.17	30.14	30.09	51	78	63			N.W.	S.W.
3	30.07	30.06	30.22	63	78	55	Clo.	Clo.	S.W.	N.W.
4	30.39	30.37	30.38	48	79	48	Fair	Clo.	N.E.	E.
5	30.34	30.16	30.07	50	56	55	Clo.	Clo.	E.	N.E.1
6	29.87	29.69	29.75	55	57	53	Clo.	Fair	N.E.1	N.W.
7	29.98	30.00	30.07	55	76	67	Fair	Fair	W.	W.
8	30.23	30.20	30.27	57	80	63	Fair	Fair	W.	W.
9	30.37	30.23	30.26	58	77	67	Clo.	Fair	E.	W.
10	30.21	30.05	30.09	66	86	73	Fair	Fair	S.W.	S.W.
11	30.10	30.06	30.17	71	87	68	Fair	Clo.	S.W.	N.E.
12	30.14	30.12	30.15	66	69	59	Clo.	Clo.	E.	N.
13	30.04	30.08	30.05	54	83	62	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.	N.
14	30.01	29.83	29.80	64	84	67	Clo.	Fair	S.W.	S.W.
15	29.89			59	80	75	Fair	Clo.	N.W.	S.W.
16	29.50	29.83	29.83	64	82	70	Clo.	Clo.	S.E.	S.W.
17	29.78	29.79	29.88	74	78	62	Clo.	Clo.	W.	S.E.
18	29.78	29.87	30.07	54	64	51	Clo.	Clo.	N.W.	N.W.
19	30.20	29.87	30.30	52	62	49	Fair	Fair	N.E.	W.2
20	30.36	30.39	30.42	44	60	45	Fair	Fair	N.W.	S.E.
21	30.41	30.42	30.44	50	68	50	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.1	N.E.
22	30.46	30.45	30.39	50	53	53	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.	N.E.2
23	29.95	29.71	29.90	53	65	62	Clo.	Fair	N.E.3	S.W.1
24	30.03	30.03	30.11	51	65	50	Clo.	Clo.	W.2	W.
25	30.22	30.23	30.20	49	72	52	Fair	Fair	W.	W.
26	30.22	30.14	30.11	52	78	55	Fair	Fair	W.	W.
27	30.14	30.20	30.26	56	79	50	Clo.	Clo.	N.	N.2
28	30.38	30.34	30.25	37	58	48	Fair	Clo.	N.1	W.
29	30.23	30.14	30.10	48	71	57	Fair	Fair	N.	S.W.
30	30.13	30.03	30.02	53	72	55	Fair	Fair	N.W.	W.
	30.46	30.45	30.44	78	88	75	Greatest.			
	30.122	30.091	30.123	59.4	72.3	57.9	Mean.			
	29.50	29.69	29.75	37	53	45	Least.			

A shower on the 3d, in the morning; on the 11th, P. M.; on the 12th, P. M.; on the 14th, P. M.; on the 17th, P. M.; on the 18th, heavy rain during the night; on the 22d, rain through the day. Whole quantity of rain, 4.86 inches.

On the 28th, early in the evening, an aurora borealis. It rested as usual upon a regular arch of a dark cloudy aspect, rising ten or fifteen degrees from the horizon, and extending fifty or sixty degrees each way from the magnetick north. *There were a few perpendicular streamers, beside the steady equable light over the arch*, that sometimes shot up twenty or thirty degrees, with a sort of twinkling, intermittent light. It died away gradually, and disappeared about 11 o'clock. Stars were visible through the cloudy arch at the bottom.

Brunswick, Bowdoin College.

BY PROFESSOR CLEVELAND.

AUGUST, 1815.

	Thermometer.					Barometer.			Winds.		Weather.	
	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	Maximum of cold.	Maximum of heat.	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.
1	7	82	70	52.5	84	29.85	29.66	29.70	S.W.	N.W	Fair.	Fair.
2	60	77	64	50	77.5	29.71	29.73	29.75	S.E.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
3	63	76	66	49.5	77	29.70	29.70	29.71	N.W.	N.W.	Fair.	Cloudy.
4	60	74	62	45.5	76	29.75	29.73	29.72	N.W.	W.	Fair.	Cloudy.
5	62	76	63	46.5	77	29.60	29.53	29.47	W.	S.W.	Fair.	Rain.
6	58	66.5	61	52	67	29.47	29.52	29.69	N.W.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
7	60	74	64.5	44.5	76	29.84	29.81	29.83	W.	S.W.	Fair.	Fair.
8	61	72	64	52	72.5	30.00	30.03	30 03	N E.	S.	Fair.	Fair.
9	60	72	63	39.5	73	30 00	29.99	29.93	S.W.	S.	Fair.	Fair.
10	60	76.5	61	41.5	78	29.94	29.95	29.96	S.	S.E.	Fair.	Fair.
11	58.5	67.5	57	43	68	29.90	29.93	29 98	S E.	S.E.	Cloudy.	Cloudy
12	55	58	55	52.7	59	30.01	30.02	30.03	E.	E.	Rain.	Rain.
13	54.5	59.5	57	53	61.5	29.89	29.82	29.81	N.E.	N.E.	Rain.	Mist.
14	62	72.5	60	56	74	29.76	29.71	29.73	N.W.	W.	Cloudy.	Fair.
15	62	76.5	67	47	80	29.81	29.83	29.83	W.	S.W.	Fair.	Fair.
16	63.5	73	64	50	73	29.85	29 88	29.83	S.W.	S.W.	Fair.	Rain.
17	68.5	70	64	60.5	71	29.82	29.89	29.93	N.E.	E.	Mist.	Cloudy.
18	66	75.7	64	60	78.5	30.05	30.09	30.00	S.W.	S.E.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
19	63.5	78.5	65	61	79	29.96	29.89	29.87	S.	S.E.	Mist.	Fog.
20	62	73	63.5	59.2	73.5	29.80	29.80	29.80	N.E.	S.	Fog.	Cloudy.
21	62	75	64	58.5	77	29.81	29.83	29.85	N.E.	S.E.	Mist.	Cloudy.
22	64	71.5	63	60.5	72	29.87	29.87	29.90	N.E.	S.E.	Mist.	Mist.
23	61	75	70	56	77	29.94	29.95	29.98	N.E.	W.	Cloudy.	Fair.
24	62	71	61	57	74	30.00	30.00	29.99	S.E.	S.E.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
25	57	62	57	54	63	29.93	29.89	29.84	E.	N.E.	Cloudy.	Rain.
26	58	71.5	64.5	54.7	75	29.85	29.86	29.86	N.W.	S.W.	Mist.	Cloudy.
27	66	81	67	59.7	82	29.89	29.91	29.94	N.W.	S.W.	Cloudy.	Fair.
28	64	78	61.5	52.5	83	30.02	30 08	30.37	N.W.	S.W.	Fair.	Cloudy.
29	62.5	71	62	58.5	73	30.14	30.10	30.06	S.	S.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
30	68	78	68	58	83	29.93	29.94	29 92	S.W.	S.W.	Fair.	Cloudy.
31	62	70	60.5	59	73	29.91	29.86	29.86	N.	N.	Cloudy.	Fair.
Means	62	72.7	62.5	53.4	74.7	29.86	29.86	29.86				

Mean temperature deduced from three observations each day 65.72°
ditto maxima of heat and cold 64.06
Mean pressure of the atmosphere - - 29.86 in.
Greatest monthly range of barometer - .67
Rain - - - - - - - 3.02

Thunder on the 1st, 5th, 12th, 14th, and 30th.

CAMBRIDGE.

The terrible storm on the 23d of this month, was very severely felt in this place. The wind was east in the morning, and pretty strong. Between 9 and 10 o'clock in the forenoon it shifted to the south-east, and afterwards to the south. It appears to have been most violent about the time of its changing, both before and after, for chimneys were blown both to the west and north, but shingles and slates, that were torn from the roofs of buildings, were carried to the greatest distance in the direction of about three points west of north. The greatest destruction took place between half past 10 and half past 11, the wind varying from south-east to south, and being at the same time more and less violent alternately. The rain ceased about the time the wind changed. A clear sky was visible in many places, during the greatest violence of the tempest, and clouds might be seen moving very rapidly in the direction of the wind. The air had an unusual appearance. It was somewhat darkened by the excessive agitation, and filled with the leaves of trees and other light substances raised from the ground, which were whirled about in eddies instead of being driven directly forward, as in a common storm. The river raged and foamed like the sea in a storm, and the spray was raised to the height of fifty or sixty feet, in the form of thin white clouds, which were drifted along in a kind of waves, like snow in a violent snow storm. Several persons in attempting to reach the river were driven back, when they came to an open place, by the force of the wind, and were obliged to make several efforts, before they could overcome the violence of the pressure. It was impossible to stand still in a place exposed to the full force of the wind. Being abroad with several others, we were obliged to shelter ourselves behind some obstacle, or to keep moving about; and as we passed from one place to another, we inclined our bodies towards the wind, as if we were ascending a steep hill. It was with great difficulty, that we could hear each other speak at the distance of two or three yards. The wind pressed like a rapid current of water, and we moved about almost as awkwardly as those do, who attempt to wade in a strong tide. The barometer descended very fast all the morning, and at the time the wind was highest had fallen about half an inch. It began to rise as the wind abated, and recovered its former elevation by the time the air was restored to its usual tranquillity.

MISCELLANEOUS AND LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

The late Hon. Isaac Royall, formerly of Medford, and at his decease of Kensington, Great Britain, by his will dated 1773, and a codicil 1779, bequeathed to the University certain lands, with power to sell them and apply the income of the capital obtained, towards endowing a Professorship of Law. The income, although not sufficient for the maintenance of a resident professor, affording a compensation for a competent number of lectures in jurisprudence, considered as a part of general education, the Corporation with the consent of the Overseers, have added to the institution a Professor of Law. He is styled the Royall Professor of Law, so long as the endowment by Mr. Royall shall constitute the largest part of the fund appropriated to this professorship, but may have another name if at any time hereafter his bequest should be exceeded by the benefaction of some other person.

The lectures are to be given three or four times a week, between the middle of March and May of each year, to the members of the senior class, to resident graduates, and to students of law, and others specially admitted.

The Hon. Isaac Parker is appointed to this office, which he has accepted with the view of commencing the lectures the next season, it being a part of the year when the official duties of the Chief Justice will not interfere with those of the Professor.

We are happy that our educated young men are to be guided to a knowledge of the general principles of law, and their application to our forms of civil and ecclesiastical polity under the auspices of a civilian, so entirely the object of publick confidence.

The Rev. John Snelling Popkin, D. D. has entered upon the office of College Professor of Greek, to give the whole instruction to the classes in that department. He succeeds Mr. Asher Ware, late College Professor of Greek, who has resigned his office.

Six students have been admitted into the sophomore class, and sixty four into that of the freshmen, since commencement.

John C. Warren, M. D. late adjunct professor, was recently publickly inducted in the University Chapel, into the office of Hersey Professor of Anatomy and Surgery.

Jacob Bigelow, M. D. was announced as Lecturer on Materia Medica and Botany. And,

* Walter Channing, M. D. as Lecturer on Midwifery.

* The lectures of the Medical School of the University, commence this month in Boston.

A complete new chemical apparatus, for the use of the College at Cambridge, procured in London by an agent, expressly sent for the purpose, has been shipped and will be used in the lectures next spring.

A plan to raise a small fund for the commencement of an institution for the promotion of the Fine Arts in this town, has been for some time past in agitation, and some steps towards commencing a subscription, have been taken, which several gentlemen have promised to aid. Its further prosecution is postponed for a short time. In the next number some observations on the subject will be given, and some mention of the artists, now living here, as well as of those who are temporarily absent, and whose return would be certain, if they could hope for that encouragement, which an institution of this kind would greatly contribute to afford.

The Agricultural Society of Connecticut have published an Almanack for the use of farmers, which is said to be on a very improved plan; and as every farmer purchases an Almanack, much useful information is given to them in this way. We have not seen one of them, but, a work of this kind might certainly be made of increased utility, and might be issued under the direction, or patronage, of the Agricultural Societies of other States.

The Cattle show, and exhibition of domestick manufactures at Pittsfield, is stated to have been very fully attended this season, and to have afforded the most satisfactory proofs of the melioration of our breeds of cattle and sheep; and the improvement of many branches of domestick manufactures. Exhibitions of this kind have greatly contributed to the present flourishing state of agriculture in England, and it would have the most beneficial effect to multiply them here. An annual show of this kind, in Boston or its neighbourhood, for the distribution of premiums, would be attended with salutary effects, and is much wanted. Perhaps there might be added to it, in some village in the neighbourhood, a Fair for the sale of fat cattle, as such numerous droves are brought here annually to be slaughtered.

The militia reviews of this autumn, have been extensive and satisfactory. The First Division, consisting of three brigades, amounting in all to between five and six thousand men, were reviewed at Dedham. The Second Division was also reviewed by brigades, at Boxford and Danvers, each brigade containing upwards of two thousand. The equipment and discipline of the militia has greatly improved within a short period in this State. They are all well armed, all the officers, commissioned and non-

commissioned, all the cavalry and artillery, and many of the infantry companies are in uniform. There are upwards of one hundred brass field pieces, with all the appendages complete, distributed among the different companies of artillery; and a greater degree of emulation exists in this important branch of service than formerly.

Proposals are issued for publishing the biography of the late Rev. John Murray, in one volume.

General Wilkinson intends to publish memoirs of his own time, in three volumes.

A collection of books recently imported from Holland, will be sold at auction in Boston, on the 20th of December. Descriptive catalogues are ready to be issued. A more rare and valuable assortment of books was never before exposed for sale in the United States, and there are among these several, which it may be safely affirmed cannot be found in any library in the country. There are some modern German and French authors, but the greater part are chosen editions of the ancient classicks, standard works in theology and criticism. Among them may be cited a splendid edition of Calvin in nine folio volumes, bound in vellum, a copy of the Byzantine historians, the most valuable edition of Bayle, &c. &c. Among the criticks, are the works of Buxtorf, Erasmus, Le Clerc, Lipsius, Hammond, Lightfoot, Salmasius, Schultens, Crellius, Scaliger, Socinus, Poole, Przipcanius, Father Simon, Dupin, Carpzovius, Vitringa and Vossius. An opportunity is offered to theologians, literary men, and college libraries, of obtaining invaluable standard works, such as has never offered in this country, and but rarely in Europe. We shall not dwell on the value of these books, as those who are capable of appreciating them, will be able to judge of them by the catalogue which will be distributed in season, in all our principal towns.

BOOKS RECENTLY PUBLISHED IN ENGLAND.

A volume of posthumous poetry of William Cowper, Esq. and a sketch of his life by the Rev. John Johnson.*

Travels through Poland, Austria, Bavaria, Saxony, and the Tyrol, in 1807 and 1808, by Baron Uklanski.

PREPARING FOR PUBLICATION.

Fragments of several orations of Cicero, with a commentary of Ascanius Vedianus, from original MSS. lately discovered in the Ambrosian library at Milan. To be published under the direction of Mr. J. G. Jackson.

* Mess'rs Wells and Lilly have re-printed this volume.

The life and campaigns of Field Marshal Prince Blucher, translated from the German of General Gneisenau, by J. E. Marston.

Memoirs of John Duke of Marlborough, two volumes quarto, drawn from private correspondence and family documents, preserved at Blenheim, by Mr. Archdeacon Coxe.

The life of James the Second, King of England, collected out of memoirs written by himself, also his advice to his son, and his last will. By the Rev. J. S. Clarke.

Dr. Young is printing a work, entitled a practical and historical treatise on consumptive diseases, exhibiting a concise account of the state of medical science in all ages.

It is said to have been discovered in England, that *larch* trees are very noxious to many others, such as poplars, plane, and willows, and that the decay of the orchards, the fruit not only being blighted: but the trees themselves being in a dying state, is owing to these trees. That the larch contains a kind of white powder on every twig, which is full of insects, and which being carried to the other trees occasions their destruction. In the county of Essex, they are considered by many persons, on account of these very insects, noxious to man. That many families who had suffered by having these trees grow near their dwellings, had recovered when they had been cut down.

There has been lately published in England, a 'Memoir on the Ruins of Babylon. By Claudius James Rich, Esq. president for the Hon. East India Company, at the court of the Pasha of Bagdad, with three plates.' From some account of this work, and extracts from it in the Literary Panorama, for August last, it must be a very interesting one, particularly as illustrating several texts of scripture, in relation to the mode of building, and the destruction of that city.

In some account of the proceedings of the Royal Society in the Monthly Magazine for August, there is the following article. 'J. G. Children, Esq. submitted to the society, a description of his very large galvanick battery, each plate of which consisted of 32 square feet, and related the effects of a great number of experiments made with it in producing intense heat, in melting metals, &c. one experiment was on iron. He and Mr. Pepys took a piece of soft iron, made a cavity in it to hold some diamond powder, and then submitted it to the action of the galvanick battery; when the iron was instantly converted into blister steel, and the diamond entirely disappeared. This experiment the author concluded, was quite satisfactory to prove that the diamond contains nothing but pure carbon.

[There have been several instances of springs of fresh water that have ebbed and flowed with regularity; various conjectures have been made about the cause. By the following account taken from the Monthly Magazine for August, a very remarkable effect was discovered on a stream of fresh water, which is clearly produced by the ebbing and flowing of the tide, though the mode of its operation does not seem perfectly ascertained.]

On an ebbing and flowing stream discovered by boring in the harbour of Bridlington; by John Storer, M. D.

The following account of certain peculiarities attending a spring of fresh water, which was tapped in boring within the harbour of Bridlington quay, Yorkshire, is given from repeated observations made during a residence of some weeks there, in the months of July and August, 1814. The harbour of Bridlington quay is dry at low water, except for a rivulet which traverses its bed: at high water it has from fifteen to seventeen feet of water. Mr. Rennie, civil engineer, was consulted in the year 1811, respecting certain improvements projected in that harbour. At his desire, with a view to ascertain the depth of a stratum of clay in the harbour, the boring, which terminated in forming the well to be described, was begun under the direction of Mr. Milne, collector of the customs for the port. The spot fixed upon is opposite to the termination, of a street leading to the harbour, and has about six feet of water at high water in ordinary tides.

After the workmen had bored through twenty eight feet of very solid clay, and afterwards through fifteen feet of a cretaceous flinty gravel, of a very concrete texture, the augur was perceived to strike against the solid rock; but, as they were not able to make any impression upon it, the work was given up for that tide, without any appearance of water from the first. In an hour or two afterwards, the bore was found filled to the top with fresh water, of the most limpid appearance: it soon flowed over, and was even projected some inches above the summit of the bore, in a stream equal to its calibre. When it was ascertained that the water was of the purest quality and taste, perfectly fit for washing, and every culinary purposes, the bore was properly secured by an elm stock, ten feet long, and perforated with a three-inch augur, driven to its full length; a copper tube well tinned on both sides, of a circumference to admit of its being passed through the bore of an elm stock, and thirty-two feet in length, was then forced to the bottom of the bore, so as to rest on the rock. The upper part being properly puddled round the elm stock, and the well thus completed, the following singular circumstances were observed, and have continued with great uniformity ever since.

As soon as the surface of the sea water in the harbour, during the flowing tide, has arrived at a level of forty-nine or fifty inches lower than the top of the bore, the water begins to flow from it in a stream equal to its calibre, the impetus of which is increased as the tide advances, and may be observed to be propelled with much force after the bore is overflowed by the tide. The discharge continues from four to five hours, i. e. till the tide in returning falls to the same level where it began to flow: at this point it ceases completely till the next flood shall have regained the same level, when the same phenomena recur, in the same succession, and without any variation, but what arises from the different degrees of elevation in the tides. The rule appears to be, that the column of spring water in the bore is always supported at a height of forty-nine or fifty inches above the level of the tide, at any given time. This at least was the result of every observation I made during several successive weeks in the months of July and August last; and, I am assured by Mr. Milne, on whose ingenuity and habit of accurate observation I can place the firmest reliance, that his habitual experience, for three years past, goes to convince him, that the variations from the rule stated above, are very inconsiderable during the summer and autumnal months; but, that in winter, after any unusual fall of rain, he has known the column of fresh water raised eight feet above the level of the tide, and the period of its discharge proportionally prolonged.

For the use of the town and shipping, a reservoir, of brick work, capable of containing one thousand gallons, has been constructed within two or three yards, and upon a somewhat higher level than the summit of the bore, and is made to communicate with it by a tube of the same diameter, fitted with a valve to prevent any reflux into the well. Two waste pipes are placed within a foot of the top of the reservoir, for the regular discharge of the water, and it has also been made to communicate with a pump adjoining, by which the reservoir may be emptied; and as the bore of the well is now closed and secured at the top, it is obvious that the commencement of the flow of water, from the pipes of the reservoir, will happen a few minutes sooner or later at each tide, according to the quantity of water it contained at the time. Such, however, is the known regularity of the discharge from the waste pipes, that at the expected time of the tide several of the inhabitants are always on the spot with their vessels, and are rarely obliged to wait for more than five minutes.

Such is the state of facts, and it appears to open a subject of curious investigation to those whose habits and practical knowledge qualify them for it. The appearances seem not to admit of any satisfactory explanation, without supposing some mode of subterranean communication, by which the water of the sea, and that of the spring in question, are brought into actual contact, so as to exert a reciprocal action. This supposition receives con-

siderable support from a circumstance which I had no opportunity to observe, but which Mr. Milne has had frequent occasion to notice; and which he describes by remarking, that after stormy weather, when there is a heavy sea on that coast, the water is discharged even from the waste pipes of the reservoir, with an evident undulation: which, of course, would be more considerable from the original bore.

Mr. Milne has framed an hypothesis to satisfy his own mind on this curious subject. He believes the stratum of clay found in the harbour, to extend over the whole bay in front of it, as far as the Smithwick Sand, which forms a bar across the opening of the bay, in a direction from Flamborough Head, towards the Spurn Point, and about four miles from the quay, in a south east direction. The bank is supported by a reef of rocks; and, though there are openings which are well known, and admit vessels of considerable burthen at all times of the tide, there is in general but a small draught of water on this bank when the tide is out. On the outward, or east side, towards the ocean, the rock is quite perpendicular, and a great depth of water is immediately behind it. As the copious source of water which has been tapped in the harbour, lies at such a depth, and under a stratum of clay, there is no reason to think that it can be discharged any where in the bay, till it arrives at the ledge of rock where the clay terminates. Here among the fissures of the rock it may find its exit: and this is more likely, as it is known that the bed of the sea, at the back of the Smithwich Sand, is at so much a lower level.

Admitting this supposition to be correct, or nearly so, it seems to follow, that the issue of a body of fresh water through a fissure of the rock forming the bed of the sea, would meet with more or less resistance at different times of the tide; because the two columns of fluid, in meeting, would act upon one another in the ratio of the altitude of each, taking into the account the difference of their specifick gravity; and thus, if there is any approach to an equilibrium, an operation would result analogous to the flux and reflux of the tide, near the mouth of rivers.

This hypothesis is specious, and accounts for the flux and reflux of the water from the bore, as well as for the singular undulation of the discharge in a boisterous state of the sea; but the greater relative altitude to which the column of spring water is elevated after much rain, and the consequent prolonged discharge of it, during each tide, seems to militate against its correctness; since, in a case, where, by the supposition, a balance is nearly established, an additional impetus communicated to the column of spring water, ought to produce the opposite effect, by enabling it to overcome the resistance of the same column of sea water during a longer period of each tide, than under the usual circumstances.

It is not improbable, that this whole subject might be elucidated, by a more perfect acquaintance with the peculiarities of the springs on this part of the coast, provincially termed *gipsies*. The water in this district of the East Riding of Yorkshire, possesses that limpidness which is usual in cretaceous soils; but, for many miles of the Wolds behind Bridlington, very little water is to be seen. There are few rivulets, and these are very low in the summer, and most of them quite dry in autumn. The account to be collected from the inhabitants is, that, in two or three weeks after the commencement of frost, the springs begin to run copiously; and in many the water is projected with such impetuosity as to resemble a *jet d'eau*; it is then said, in the language of the country, that 'the gipsies are up,' and the rivulets overflow.

OBITUARY.

DEATHS AT HOME.

In New-Hampshire. General George Reed, aged 83. An officer of the Revolution, and a citizen venerable for his age and his virtues.

In Massachusetts. The Rev. John Murray, aged 75. Senior Pastor of the First Universal Society in Boston. His friends have issued proposals for publishing a biography of his life. *In Taunton*, Dr. Philip Padelford, aged 62. A respectable physician. *In Princetown*, Dr. Isaac Warren, jr. aged 28. *At Hallowell*, Hon. Nathaniel Dummer, aged 60. *In Boston*, Dr. Anson Smith, of Upper Canada. *In Portland*, Lieut. Kirvine Waters, of the U. S. Navy, from a wound received in the engagement between the Enterprize and Boxer. *In Brookfield*, Mrs. Rice, aged 86, a lineal descendant in the fifth generation from Peregrine White, the first child born in Plymouth Colony. *In Newburyport*, Dr. Micajah Sawyer, aged 77, a physician of eminence, and a citizen of great respectability. *In Stow*, Capt. J. Whitman, killed by a stage passing over him, and, the *same day*, Charles Hale, one of his neighbours, by a log passing over his body. *In Colerain*, Mr. T. Bell, killed in a sham action at a military review. *In Salem*, Hon. William Orne, President of the Essex Bank, an eminent merchant and very respectable citizen. H. D. Pickman, aged 19, a graduate of Harvard University, whose character had inspired sanguine hopes in his friends for his future distinction. *At Roxbury*, suddenly, while on a visit to a patient, Dr. Thomas Williams, aged 79.

In New York, Richard Alsop, Esq. of Middletown, Connecticut, aged 54. A man distinguished for his literary taste and attainments; and greatly beloved for his integrity, his benevolence, and his amiable manners. He was the author of many fugitive pieces of poetry, and published several translations of French and Italian works. He left several works in MS. and as some of them are said to be complete, it may be hoped that they will be printed. *In Albany County*, Gen. Paul Todd, aged 57, expired suddenly, while apparently in perfect health and spirits. Rt. Rev. Samuel Provost, D. D. aged 73, Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church of New York.

In Pennsylvania. Hon. John Whitehill, aged 94.

In Maryland. Lieut. Com. John M. Gardiner, of the U. S. Navy. *In Baltimore,* the Rev. Dr. Obrien.

In Virginia. Samuel Shepherd, Esq. aged 54, Auditor of that state. A native of Boston. *In Powhatan County,* Col. Henry Skipwith, a revolutionary officer.

In North Carolina. Gen. John Steele, formerly a member of Congress, and for many years Comptroller of the Treasury of the United States.

In Georgia. Col. Richard Sparks, late of 2d Reg. of Infantry. *At Fort Decatur,* the Hon. Mr. Sevier, one of the commissioners appointed to run the boundary line in the territories of the Creeks.

In Kentucky. Captain John Johnson, a respectable citizen, of wounds received in a quarrel on an election day.

In New Orleans. Maj. D. O. Dunham, aged 24.

Illinois Territory. Hon. Stanley Griswold, one of the Judges, formerly of Connecticut.

DEATHS BY VIOLENCE.

In Massachusetts. Jonathan Jewett, a black man, has been condemned to be executed for the murder of his father-in-law.

In Rhode-Island. Two men have been condemned to be hung for burglary.

In Connecticut. Peter Lung, has been condemned to be hung for the murder of his wife. Joseph Purdy, after being separated from his wife, returned, as supposed, with an intention to murder her, but she was fortunately from home. He fired her house and barn, and died next morning, having previously taken poison.

In New York. Mr. John Wood, killed in the street by Patrick Hart, a wood-sawyer, with a stick of wood. Wm. Wilson, shoemaker, suicide, by shooting himself with a gun. Barent Becker, hung in Montgomery County, for the murder of his wife. He had been confined a year previous to his trial. In the town of *Victor,* a young woman of 20 murdered a child of 5 years of age by cutting its throat with a razor. A Mrs. Burke having died in the New York Hospital, in consequence of a beating from her husband, the coroner's verdict was wilful murder.

In Philadelphia. G. Oliver, killed in a fracas in a sailors' boarding house.

In North-Carolina. A runaway slave, whipped to death by John R. Cooke and one or two others. The details of this business cannot be read without shuddering with horrour. Cooke has been condemned to be hung, one of his accomplices has escaped. A man named *Nyler* has been hung for forgery, and John Saunders for the murder of his brother.

In South-Carolina. In Pendleton District, Sampson Tippins, murdered by Thomas George, the criminal made his escape, a reward has been offered for him.

In Georgia. Royal Elms has been condemned to be hung for passing counterfeit bank notes.

DEATHS ABROAD.

In England. Lady Harriot Ackland, aged 66. She was celebrated for her devotion to her husband, who was wounded and taken prisoner

in Gen. Burgoyne's army. The Duke of St. Albans, hereditary grand Falconer of England. One of the privileges attached to this place was the right of driving his carriage in the ride in Hyde Park, appropriated to equestrians, and which was permitted to no one else but the Royal Family. John Eardley Wilmot, Esq. aged 67. Mr. Wilmot was a master in Chancery, and at the head of a commission which laboured many years for the settlement of the claims of the American loyalists, to whom he rendered great services. Col. Beaumont, drowned himself in the Thames, verdict suicide, and the body was buried in a cross road. *In London*, Count Merveldt, the Austrian Ambassadour. The Earl of Chesterfield. Vice-Admiral Otway. *At Birmingham*, Dr. Joshua Toulmin, a distinguished preacher among the Unitarians, the successor of Dr. Priestley.

In France. Marshal Brune, assassinated. Gen. Ramel, murdered by the mob. *In Paris*, Madame de Labedoyere, soon after the execution of her husband. *In the South of France*, at Nismes and its neighbourhood, a great many of the protestants have been massacred. Some accounts have stated that six hundred had been destroyed in the course of a few days.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We have been so seldom favoured with poetical offerings, that we reject any with some regret and hesitation. The verses of C. G. M. are equal to many pieces of Magazine poetry, but the thoughts are common, and the versification careless. New ideas cannot always be expected, but their place should be supplied by the grace and harmony of diction.

The Song on the return of Peace, for which we are indebted to N. H. C. shall appear in the next number. The other Poem, which for the sake of the author, it is to be hoped is a juvenile performance, we should speak of very harshly, if it were not for the concluding lines, which indicate something better than the rest; but as we do not feel at liberty to mutilate the poem, we shall enclose and leave it, for N. H. C. as he requested.

We thank a person without signature, for his good intentions, who sent the account of a practice at Dunmore Priory, in illustration of Nos. 607 and 608 of the Spectator; yet, as far as novelty is concerned, he might as well have asked us to insert these numbers themselves.

To the individual who transmitted a Review of a recent law book, published in New York, it might be sufficient to say, that we have never seen the book, and we cannot take the opinions of anonymous correspondents. In the miscellany, we do not exact a knowledge of the writers, if they prefer being *incognito*; but in the department of the Review, though we shall be highly gratified at receiving assistance, from many individuals, of whom we have no opportunity of asking it, or to whom we are personally unknown, yet for obvious reasons, their favours must be accompanied with the additional one of informing us to whom we are indebted.

Professor Cleveland's absence from home during the month of September, has prevented our having a journal of the weather for that month from him; and we regret that we have not received any from the gentleman at Albany, to whom we have been hitherto indebted.

NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW

AND

MISCELLANEOUS JOURNAL.

No. V.

JANUARY, 1816.

The Planters Plea, or grounds of plantations examined and usual objections answered: together with a manifestation of the causes mooving such as have lately vndertaken a plantation in Nevv England. For the satisfaction of those that question the lawfulnesse of the action. 2 Thes. v. 21. *Prove all things, and holde fast that which is good. London, printed by William Jones,* 1628. *4to pp.* 84.

Their Majesties Colony of Connecticut in New-England vindicated from the abuses of a pamphlet licensed and printed at New-York 1694, *intituled Some seasonable considerations of the good people of Connecticut. By an answer thereunto. Boston, in New-England, printed by Bartholomew Green, Anno. Dom.* 1694. *4to pp.* 43.

These two pamphlets are in the library of the Boston Atheneum: the last is an extremely ill written, passionate answer to the New-York pamphlet, which was composed to justify the usurpations of the Governour of New-York on the people of Connecticut, in regard to the control of the militia and military services. Connecticut successfully resisted, and justice was on her side, but if she had possessed no other advocate except the writer of this pamphlet, her rights would have been trampled upon with impunity.

The first pamphlet is tolerably well written, and it contains one valuable document for the historian, in the minute account which it gives, of the origin and failure of the company, which in the first planting of Plymouth, undertook to derive profit from a fishing project; that being the only instance where pecuniary motives operated on the first projectors of that colony, which owed its existence almost entirely to the unconquerable love of political and religious liberty.

The author of the Planter's Plea, states the objections that were then made to planting colonies, and makes an answer to each in the manner of a dialogue. The second objection with his answer, will shew what were some of the opinions of that day, and the style in which the book is written.

'Objection 2d. But the pretended end of winning the 'heathen to the knowledge of God and embracing of the 'faith of Christ, is a meere fantasie, and a worke not only of 'uncertaine but unlikely successe, as appears by our fruit-'lesse endeavours that way, both in *Virginia* and *New-'England*, where *New-Plimmouth* men inhabiting now 'these ten yeares, are not able to give any account of any 'one man converted to Christianity.

'Answer. And no marvell unlesse God should worke 'by miracle; neither can it be expected that worke should 'take effect untill we may be more perfectly acquainted 'with their language, and they with ours. Indeede it is 'true, both the Natives and English understand so much 'of one another's language, as may enable them to trade 'with one another, and fit them for conference about things 'that are subject to outward sense, and so they understand 'our use in keeping the Sabbath day, observe our rever-'ence in the worship of God, are somewhat acquainted 'with the morall precepts, know that adultery, murther, 'theft and lying are forbidden, which nature teacheth, be-'cause these things are outward, and may be understood 'almost by sense: But how shall a man expresse unto them 'things meerely spirituall, which have no affinity with sense, 'unlesse wee were thoroughly acquainted with their language, 'and they with ours? neither can we in theirs, or they in ours 'utter any continued speech, because neither we nor they 'understand the moods, tenses, cases, numbers, preeposi-

'tions, adverbes, &c. which make coherence in words and 'expresse a perfect sense. Besides, it hath beene intimat-'ed, that wee hardly have found a brutish people wonne 'before they had been taught civility. So wee must endea-'vour and expect to worke that in them first, and Religion 'afterwards. Amongst such as have been brought over 'into *England* from *Virginia* there was one *Nanawack*, 'a youth sent over by the *Lo. de Lawarre*, when hee was 'Governour there, who coming over and living here a yeare 'or two in houses where hee heard not much of religion, 'but saw and heard many times examples of drinking, 'swearing, and like evills, remained as hee was a meere 'Pagan; but after removed into a Godly family, hee was 'strangely altered, grew to understand the principles of 'Religion, learned to reade, delighted in the Scriptures, 'Sermons, Prayers, and other Christian duties, wonderfully 'bewailed the state of his countrymen, especially his 'brethren; and gave such testimonies of his love to the 'truth, that hee was thought fit to be baptised; but being 'prevented by death, left behind such testimonies of his 'desire of God's favour, that it mooved such Godly chris-'tians as knew him, to conceive well of his condition; nei-'ther is there any cause to doubt but time may bring on in 'others, as well as it did in him, that which wee expect 'upon a sodaine in vaine.

'Reply. But some conceive the inhabitants of *New-'England* to be *Cham's* posterity, and consequently shut 'out from grace by *Noah's* curse, till the conversion of the 'Jewes be past at least.

'Answer. How do they appeare to be *Cham's* poster-'ity? whose sonnes by the agreement of writers, tooke up 'their dwellings together, in *Canaan*, *Palestina*, and the 'parts adjoyning in *Arabia*, *Egypt*, *Mauritania*, *Lybia* 'and other bordering parts of *Africke*, and consequently 'for any footsteps of their descents appearing unto us, might 'bee as farre from peopling the West-Indies as any other 'part of the posteritie of *Noah's* sonnes. Neither doe mens 'conjectures agree, (for we have no certainties to build on) 'whence these countries of the parts of America towards '*New-England* might most probably be peopled. But admit 'the inhabitants to be *Cham's* posteritie, doth not the pro-'phet *Esay* foretell the conversion of Cham's posteritie in '*Egypt*, performed in the primitive times, all histories wit-

'nessing that the *Egyptians* had amongst them a Church 'of eminent note, governed by divers Bishops under the Pa- 'triarch of *Alexandria?* and who knowes not the nume- 'rous Churches of *Africke*, wherein were above 160 Bishops 'in *St. Austin's* time, governing sundry nations, all of them 'of *Cham's* posteritie? But what testimonie of scripture, 'lays such a fearfull curse upon all *Cham's* posteritie? '*Noah's* curse reacheth but to one branch, to *Canaan*, and 'as interpreters conceive, with especiall relation to the ex- 'tirpation of that part of his issue, which inhabited *Judea*, 'by the children of *Israel*. It is too much boldnesse then 'to curse where God hath not cursed, and shut out those 'from the meanes of grace, whom God hath not excluded.'

Voyages du Baron de la Hontan dans l'Amerique Septentrionale, qui contiennent une relation des differens peuples qui y habitent: la nature de leur gouvernement: leur commerce, leurs contumes, leur religion: et leur, maniere de faire la guerre: l'interet des Francois et des Anglois dans le commerce qu'ils font avec ces nations; l'advantage que l'Angleterre peut retirer de ce pais, etant en guerre avec la France. Le tout enrichie de Cartes et des figures. Seconde edition. revue, corrigé et augmenté. A la Haye chez. C. Delo. 1706. 2 *vols.* 12*mo.*

The author of these travels, the Baron de la Hontan, was in the military service of France. The first of his letters is dated at Quebeck, November 8th, 1683, and the last in Portugal in January, 1694, for having quarrelled with a superiour officer he was afraid to return to France. During this period he was in every part of the French northern colonies. The preface prefixed to this second edition by the Dutch editor, would lead a reader to place very little reliance on the work, as he avows having taken many liberties, to render the letters more pleasing. The accounts however bear every mark of authenticity, and are quite confirmed by cotemporary, as well as subsequent writers on the same country.

The Baron seems to have been an ardent and enterprizing character, with more wit than discretion. He was often placed in remote posts, associated much with the savages;

joined them in their hunting parties, and was pleased with much of their habits and character. He undertook an expedition of discovery, and penetrated high up the Missouri. This was a great effort, when it is considered, that he took his departure from civilization at Montreal. He confirms the statement made by Colden, that the Governour of Canada, M. de Frontenac, tortured in the most horrible manner, two prisoners of the Five Nations, which he justified on the score of policy! He gives a particular account of the remarkable interview between the Governour of Canada, M. de la Barre, and the ambassadors of the Five Nations; and records the speech of Garangula in nearly the same terms as Colden. In the first volume, p. 141. he gives an anecdote of one of his countrymen as follows. He is speaking of a party of Hurons under his command, who made fourteen prisoners in an encounter with a party of the Five Nations. To translate his words. 'They divided twelve 'of them among themselves, they gave away the two others, 'one of them to M. de Jucherau commanding the Fort, and 'the other to the Ottawas. What would enable you to 'guess, Sir, which of these slaves had the most fortunate 'lot; you would bet a hundred to one, that it was him who 'was given to M. de Jucherau. In fact reason seems to 'dictate, that a French officer and a christian, should have 'more humanity than savages. You deceive yourself 'greatly, notwithstanding; M. de Jucherau had no sooner 'received his Iroquois, than he engaged in the pleasing 'frolick of having him shot; while the Ottawas preserved 'the life of their victim.'

In his 16th letter, after giving an account of his journey to the Missouri, he details a plan to form a suitable party for a journey of discovery into the interiour of the continent. He makes the number far too large, but there are many good rules given, and such as shew an experienced man. There is one quite characteristick; the practice may have existed, but the particular directions have been seldom *published*. 'Another measure necessary to a com-'mandant is to have a skillful spy, and to pay him well; by 'this means, as he will know every thing that takes place, 'he can regulate his conduct clearly and upon certain 'grounds, to obviate any evil or to cut it off. The princi-'pal point is to detect the first mover and author of a cabal; 'such a discovery demands great cunning and secrecy; but 'when you have so thoroughly examined things, that no

'doubt remains respecting the guilty person, it is absolutely 'necessary to get rid of him; but as it would be attended 'with too much danger to take away his life, in sight of his 'partizans: he should be dispatched to the other world by 'a subterranean rout, so that he may suddenly disappear, 'without any of his fellows knowing what has become of him.'

The second volume contains a general account of the French possessions in Canada. An account of the animals, trees, &c. which is rather meagre; and an account of the religion, customs, character, armorial bearings, hieroglyphicks, &c. of the natives, to which is added a short dictionary of the Algonquin dialect.—But the most remarkable part of this volume, is a supposed conversation between La Hontan and Adario, the celebrated chief of the Deomondadies, a tribe of the Hurons. It is divided into three dialogues, upon *religion*, *laws*, and *self-interest*. These are in fact a satire in which the civilized man contends with the savage, but only to give him the advantage. These dialogues have much of the wit and manner of Voltaire, or rather Voltaire has much of these, and it would be curious to know how far succeeding writers have borrowed from this book, comparatively little known. This kind of satire has been repeated since even to nauseousness, but this is somewhat remarkable, when it is recollected, that it was written before the close of the 17th century.

The History of the Province of New-York, from the first discovery to the year 1732. *To which is annexed a description of the country, with a short account of the Inhabitants, their trade, religious and political state, and the constitution of the Courts of Justice in that Colony.*

Lo! swarming o'er the new discovered world
Gay colonies extend: the calm retreat
Of undeserv'd distress.—
—Bound by social freedom firm they rise!
Of Britain's empire the support and strength.

Nec minor est virtus, quam quaerere parta tueri.

By William Smith, A. M. London, printed for Thomas Wilcox, 1757. *4to pp.* 255.

This work which the author in his preface modestly gives to the world as a plain narrative, and not a regular history,

contains many valuable materials for the historian. He brings his relation no further than the year 1732; and it is since that period, that the state of New-York has acquired a due importance, by a developement of the power and advantages which its local situation and extensive territory confer. Its early history is much less interesting than that of Massachusetts or Virginia. The tameness and ignorance of its original Dutch settlers were long predominant, and being a conquered colony, those jealous feelings of liberty and early precautions for self-government, which mark every step of the New-England colonists, were little felt or feebly attempted. In the early stages of the colony no foundations were laid for the education of the inhabitants; the ignorance that was the consequence, the author frequently laments. Their Governours came over to them with very arbitrary notions of power, and considered the administration of the colony to be wholly at their control. They had a Council and an assembly; the latter was so subservient that for a long time, they voted supplies for a period of years, which were placed at the entire disposal of the Governour, who rendered no account. It was of course considered a place for a Governour to make his fortune, and generally given to needy favourites for this purpose.

The quarrels which ensued from Lesler's assumption of the government, and his execution long agitated the country. They were besides engaged in disputes with New-Jersey, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, about limits. They were not free from religious quarrels, so common to those times, and had a long contest to escape from the authority of the Ecclesiastical power in the mother country.

Mr. Smith seems to consider it an advantage that they were too ignorant to make laws, and establish precedents of their own, as was the case with their Eastern neighbours; and therefore retained the laws and legal usages of England, more unmixed than any other colony. A Court of Chancery was early established, and the Governour who was generally a military man, or sometimes a mere courtier, was the Chancellor. The monstrous evils of such a jurisdiction, were frequently an occasion of vexation, and fruitless opposition.

The connexion between New-York and the Five Nations, is the most interesting part of the early history of that state; a better account is given of it by Colden than by

Smith. On the subject of Indian trade and alliance, and the extension of colonial limits, it is impossible not to remark the systematick design, the farsighted views, and indefatigable exertions of the French government in all their undertakings. While the history of the English colonies down to the year 1760, discovers throughout, that the government at home were without any definite views respecting them, any comprehensive system for their administration, or any wise combination for futurity. To subject those, whose unconquerable spirit had induced them to fly from tyranny at home, to a still meaner subservience in their newly acquired country; to devise something for the sordid wants of craving followers, seemed to be the whole object of the desultory policy of the ministry. The French, under every disadvantage, except that they could more easily assimilate with the habits of the savages, had with a handful of men drawn a magick circle round all the English colonies, who were obliged to use the most incessant efforts to awaken the government in England to a sense of their situation; and till the famous expedition which terminated in the conquest of Canada, in which too, they bore a very important part, they had to contend almost unassisted against the skill and ambition of the French. Twice they were placed in the most imminent danger of losing their Indian allies, and seeing them go over to the French, which might perhaps have changed the whole fate of North-America. One of these occasions was occasioned by the stupid bigotry of James; the other was owing to the paltry views and gross ignorance of a few merchants in New-York and London. In the excellent report that was drawn up by Governour Barnet's Council, to submit to the Lords of trade and plantations in opposition to these interested views, the case of the Dutch trader is introduced with considerable effect. 'The Count d'Estrade in his letters in 1638 says, that when 'the Dutch were besieging Antwerp, one Beiland, who had 'loaded four fly-boats with arms and powder for Antwerp, 'being taken up by the Prince of Orange's order, and ex-'amined at Amsterdam, said boldly, that the burghers of 'Amsterdam had a right to trade every where; that he 'could name a hundred who were factors for the merchants 'at Antwerp, and that he was one. That trade cannot be in-'terrupted, and that for his part, he was very free to own, 'that if to get any thing by trade, it were necessary to pass 'through Hell, he would venture to burn his sails.' p. 165.

Having cited in a former article, an indignant reflection from Major Rogers against the people of Rhode-Island, for trading with the French in time of war, it will be curious to see how the same thing is viewed by Mr. Smith. After saying that, 'the trade of this Province was never 'so flourishing,' &c. he goes on, 'Provisions, which are 'our staple bore a high price in the West-Indies. The 'French distressed through the want of them, gladly re-'ceived our flags of truce, though they had sometimes, but 'one or two prisoners on board, because they were always 'loaded with flour, beef, pork, and such-like commodities. 'The danger their own vessels were exposed to, induced 'them to sell their sugars to us at a very low rate.' p. 217.

There is an inadvertence in speaking of the sentence of one Manning for treason; he had given up a fort to the Dutch. 'The scandalous charge which Manning on his 'trial confessed to be true, is less surprising than the lenity 'of the sentence pronounced against him. It was this, that 'though he deserved death, yet because he had since the 'surrender been in England, and seen the King and the Duke, 'it was adjudged that his sword should be broke over his 'head in public, before the City-Hall, and himself rendered 'incapable of wearing a sword, and of serving his Majesty 'for the future in any public trust in the government.' Surely that sentence, which would render life insupportable, is less lenient, than taking it away.

The writer assigns a good reason for leaving his history at the period of 1732. Because in the publick controversies that afterward took place, a near relation of his was greatly concerned. But in amplifying his remarks, though the principle with proper modifications may be just, he concludes the chapter rather awkwardly—'Besides, a writer 'who exposes the conduct of the living, will inevitably meet 'with their fury and resentment. The prudent historian 'of his own times, will always be a coward, and never give 'fire till death protects him from the malice and stroke of 'his enemy.' p. 130.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

In the last number some mention was made of a plan, under consideration, for commencing an institution to encou-

rage and promote the Fine Arts in Boston. The time has arrived in the opinion of many, when this design may be carried into execution; and it may be hoped that every person of liberal views, who may read this article, will find some reason to unite in thinking, that such an undertaking is not wholly premature. Sculpture, painting, engraving, and architecture, have so large a share in the comforts, the elegance, and the honours of society, that any dissertation on their importance would be superfluous. The appreciation which they have always met with among all civilized nations, shews their value both for utility and ornament. This value was never more striking than at the present moment, when we find all the nations of Europe engaged in contention about a few statues and paintings; the loss or the acquisition of which, seem to excite more lively feelings of joy or grief, than the destruction of a fortress, or the conquest of a province. Without assenting to all the positions in the following extract from an English weekly journal, (the Examiner,) it may still be considered as containing some just reflections on the subject:

'The noise made about these works of Art, and justly 'made, is the signal for their more general appreciation by 'the world at large,—a trumpet sounded for the approach 'of nobler genius, and the diviner triumphs of peace. Think 'of Austrians, Prussians, Russians, men from Tartary and 'the frozen Pole, the descendants of the Huns and the Scy-'thians, all walking among the beauties of Southern art, and 'prepared to carry back with them its gentler impressions. 'The very coarsest of these people must be struck with the 'importance attached to such objects by their superiors:— 'those who have any susceptibility, and who come from 'places perhaps where they have been acquainted with no-'thing but a few simple utensils and barbarous habitations, 'must gaze with astonishment on figures that seem to meet 'their eyes with consciousness, and look more like the 'works of fairies, or the mock stillness of living beauty, than 'the productions of creatures like themselves; and all must 'behold in them the last objects of civilized ambition, ob-'jects which contending interests affect at last to consider 'as something sacred from ambition itself,—glories which 'the most intelligent nations conspire to reverence, and 'which their former possessors come to claim back again, as 'the last proof of their triumph or their national pride, and

'as if they were so many living kinsmen to be redeemed 'from captivity. Nor will those who see deeper than the 'common declaimers against what is ornamental, consider 'this as an overvaluing of the works in question. We libel 'nature herself, when we declare against the ornaments of 'Art; and should first extinguish the colours of the garden, 'and the gold of the summer clouds. Ornament is utility, 'if it helps to make us happy, for of what other use is use 'itself? He who can stand before a single fine statue, quiet 'and admiring, has an enjoyment which thousands of things 'that make grave, scientific faces, would in vain attempt 'to procure for him; he enjoys the simplicity of nature in 'the shape of the utmost refinement of art; he feels pride 'without hardness, and rapture without violence; he lives 'ages that are gone by; he finds something beyond him-'self, and out of the narrow place and time in which he ex-'ists; he gets rid of the grossness of mere bodily impres-'sion, and doubles his sense of visible beauty by discover-'ing the intellectual secret of grace; in a word he is enabled 'to look upon the finest production of nature, the human 'shape, as he does upon a flower, or a tree, or a common 'animal; unshackled and unspoiled; and in proportion as 'we are able to recur for such enjoyment to any of nature's 'productions, we free ourselves from grossness and igno-'rance in a thousand shapes, and treasure up means of con-'solation, which may last us when a thousand axioms of 'philosophy only become matter of doubt and perplexity. 'These are the feelings that present themselves uncon-'sciously to the most unthinking of the admirers of such ob-'jects. The most ignorant of the Gothic visiters at the Lou-'vre partakes of them, when he feels his mind almost over-'powered, and bursts out into exclamations of delight, or 'keeps an intense silence, or vents himself even in pleasan-'tries, or kisses the Venus with his whiskered lips. That 'trite quotation from Ovid has never, perhaps, after all, been 'sufficiently appreciated;—"Nec *sinit* esse feros"—the 'cultivation of the liberal arts will not suffer men to relapse 'into ferocity; it restrains them with the force of know-'ledge, with the superiority of intellectual strength to phy-'sical, with wisdom in the shape of beauty.

'Such is the influence, more or less, which we may ex-'pect this sensation about the works of Art to create among 'the Warriors in Paris; and so in the midst of them, to

'quote a verse more applicable than ever, stands the God-'dess of Love and Beauty ;—

"So stands the Statue, which enchants the *world*."'

Without making a common place eulogium on these arts which embellish and animate every country where they are cultivated ; some of their advantages may be shewn incidentally, in a cursory consideration of the principal objections that have been sometimes made against their introduction here. These may be summarily stated under the following heads : their tendency to corrupt society, our poverty, our want of taste, the absence of artists.

It has been said, that the arts have a tendency to corrupt morals and manners.—The most ancient of all trite sayings, is the one, that the abuse of a thing is no argument against the thing itself. To consider the arts as the cause of publick profligacy is to mistake effect for a cause. When society is diseased the Arts will feel the general influence, and accompany the progress of degradation ; and if patrons call for Leda's and Danae's, the artists partaking of the common degeneracy, may comply with their wishes to avoid starvation. Such a state of things however will be rather retarded, than accelerated, by a liberal cultivation of the arts. The reproach against the arts is far less just in our own days ; if modern times are as corrupt as former ones, they are certainly more refined, and violations of decency in any respect much less frequent. Of the great living artists, very few of them have used their talents but for the noblest purposes. With hardly an exception, the celebrated artists of the present day have devoted all their exertions to the treatment of the most elevated subjects of sacred and profane history. Besides, a powerful check might be provided, in every institution, for the encouragement of the arts, by withdrawing all countenance from those, who may deviate into the selection of improper subjects. It is quite unnecessary to say more on this point.

'There is not wealth enough in the country.' In comparison with others, or in reference to our own situation, this is a great mistake. We are much wealthier than many countries, where the arts are cultivated to a great extent. The princely sums that have been sometimes paid for very celebrated works, have created a vague impression that

enormous wealth must be required. But these high prices are only paid on extraordinary occasions, and too often lavished with ignorant ostentation, on ancient works of doubtful merit, while living genius has been left to pine unheeded by the vain collector. It is however becoming the fashion in Europe to encourage contemporary talent, the worth of old pictures which had no other merit than that of being old, is now getting to its true level; and many enlightened amateurs have introduced the fashion of cherishing living artists. We may escape from the folly and injustice of collecting the trash of antiquity, and commence our institutions, at the favourable moment when fashion, as well as taste and feeling, have sanctioned the practice of supporting living merit. It would be sufficient at the outset, if the sum, though it is not large which is now expended, and mostly thrown away in works of art, should be devoted to purchase the productions of our own artists. A very considerable sum is expended in buying engravings that are worth nothing. In every house, in every parlour, there are pictures hanging on the walls, the glass and frames of which make them expensive ornaments, and which constitute their whole value. Much the largest portion of the engravings sent from Europe to this country, are utterly worthless. Engravings are divided into two classes, *proofs* and *prints*, the first four hundred copies are commonly considered as proofs and charged at double the price of the others. The prints of course are better in proportion as they are earlier impressions. Proofs of plates published in France and Italy may be known by the description of the picture being wanting, the space at bottom is left blank, and are called by the French *avant la lettre.* In England proofs of modern engravings are distinguished by the letter being left unfinished, the outlines only being impressed. A large portion of the engravings that are sent to America are impressions that are taken from worn out plates, and if they can obtain for them the cost of the paper, and a trifle for striking them off, they are satisfied; such engravings have no value. The quantity is increasing every year, and how desirable it is that such importations should be discouraged, and the sums thus wasted, be directed to reward American artists. The purchase of inferiour engravings is a complete loss of the money paid for them. But in purchasing good pictures, a

real property is acquired, their value rather increases than diminishes with time.

'We have no taste for the Arts.' Suppose this was true, how is this taste to be acquired? It cannot come by inspiration: It can only be nourished by the sight of objects which will call it into action. Those who say we cannot encourage the arts, till we have acquired a taste for them, remind one of the fond mother who was anxious her son should learn to swim, but afraid he should go into the water. There is a great deal of affectation and pedantry among connoisseurs; but a power of perceiving harmony and beauty, in a greater or less degree, is given to all mankind, and though a just taste is seldom possessed intuitively, yet it is less difficult to be acquired, than is commonly imagined. It may require an artist, perhaps, to perceive all the difficulties that have been overcome, and all the skill which has been exerted in producing a finished specimen of art, yet every one may be able to enjoy all its beauties. But stronger ground may be taken: there is a very considerable degree of taste existing in our society. There are many persons whom we should delight to name, who have cultivated drawing and painting with very considerable success; it would be one advantage attending the promotion of the arts here, that this most pleasing and interesting accomplishment would become more general. The pleasure of musick may be more lively, but it is evanescent; drawing is more quiet and more durable, it affords permanent memorials of our friends; the sounds which enchant us are dissipated in air, but the painting may recall affection to memory, long after the hand that executed it has mouldered into dust.

'We have no artists.' Of all the objections that have been suggested, this is perhaps the most erroneous. A slight mention of some of the artists now on the spot, besides those who have sought abroad the encouragement they could not find at home; will shew that our capacity is much more extensive, than even some of those who wish well to the arts may have imagined.

This list will commence with Mr. Stuart, whose merit is too well known to require any praise of ours. As an historical portrait painter, he was before his return to this country, in the first rank of his profession in England, where that branch of the art was carried to the highest perfection, and where competition was of the most powerful kind. To

his admirable pencil posterity will be indebted for the portraits of those great men, who laid the foundations of the greatness of our country. Perhaps this veteran professor was never more successful, than in some of the portraits which he has painted the last year; may he long continue to multiply the fine productions of his pencil.

In naming Colonel Henry Sargent next, we should perhaps consider him rather as an amateur than a professional artist, since he paints but a few pictures. His last and greatest work, *The Landing of the Forefathers*, having been exposed for the gratification of the publick for several months, and being so fresh in its admiration, renders it unnecessary for us to say more.

Mr. Morse has recently returned here from England. His picture of the *dying Hercules*, which was shewn for a short time to the publick, had made his merit known in advance. This painting, and the model from which it was executed, acquired him great praise in England, and gave promise of his future distinction. Mr. Morse has aimed at the highest branch of his art; he has profited by the advice and profound science of Mr. Allston, and studied in England the works of the greatest masters of our own and former times. The scenery of Mount Oeta in his Hercules, would be sufficient to show that he possesses a poetick imagination; and his friends and the publick have a right to entertain the highest expectations of this accomplished young painter.

Mr. Stuart Newton is a young artist who has hitherto principally devoted himself to portrait painting, for which he appears to have a strong natural talent, which may one day qualify him to replace his celebrated uncle, mentioned at the head of this list. From a few sketches he has produced, and from his strong and quick perception of the various expressions of the human face, he would certainly succeed in other branches of the art; in cabinet pictures of familiar scenes, perhaps of all others the most popular; study and perseverance will ensure him success.

Mr. Penniman, from some sketches rather than finished pictures we have seen from his hand, has shewn what he is capable of doing if there was any encouragement; but when this was wanting, he pursued more mechanical branches of the art; painting military standards, masonick emblems, &c. which he executes with great neatness, and accuracy, and with talents capable of higher efforts.

Mr. Fisher is a young artist, who acquired his knowledge of colouring and drawing under Mr. Penniman, and who pursues the branch of cattle and landscape painting. His delineations of the former have not only great, but surprising merit, when it is considered how little advantage he has had in seeing good pictures, and how little practice. Older artists might envy the force, the facility, the truth with which he delineates animals. His landscapes have also much merit. We predict without hesitation, that with studying nature, which will mature his taste, and perseverance in his present line, that he will attain the greatest eminence in his profession.

Mr. Tisdale, a miniature painter studied under Colonel Trumbull, and besides portraits, delineates small pictures of humorous and familiar character. From one or two specimens of this kind, we should suppose he would be very successful in subjects which employed most of the painters of the Flemish school.

Mr. Corny, an Italian, has resided here many years, and is well known as painter of marine subjects. His *portraits* of ships are remarkable for the accuracy and freshness of their delineation. In the Panoramick views of the actions at Plattsburg and on Lake Champlain, the first picture of the scenes, representing the squadrons coming into action, was not only distinguished for this talent of painting ships, but for the beauty of the surrounding scenery and back ground, which made it as a whole a most beautiful picture. In his particular department, he can hardly be surpassed.

Mr. Willard is a self-taught artist, who possesses a capacity for sculpture of no ordinary kind. He has lately been employed in carving the ornaments of two or three ships: among them the *Courier* and the *Hindu*, which have lately sailed from Boston. In viewing the freedom, the grace and harmonious design of these ornaments, it was impossible not to regret that his talents should not be exercised on more noble and durable materials. The gentlemen who patronized him in this way, have however rendered him a service, as it developes his ability, and gives him practice, but it may be hoped that he will be hereafter occupied in higher branches of sculpture.* Besides these works, from looking

* Some may object perhaps that carving in wood, is very different from sculpture in marble. A mere ordinary carver might be unsuccessful in marble, but real talent is wasted in working upon wood. The process

at some architectural and other drawings, we have conceived a high opinion of his natural talents for the arts. Mr. Willard only wants that practice, which the encouragement and employment of the publick would give him, to become a sculptor of eminence.

We have seen some original paintings and some copies of Mr. Jones, which gave very favourable indications. Finding but little encouragement, and no advantages for improving himself here, he went last year to Philadelphia, to study the casts and paintings, in the institution of that city. Besides these artists already named, there is Mr. Greenwood, and Mr. Coles, portrait painters, Mr. Doyle, a miniature painter, and perhaps others, besides engravers. The list given is a very hasty and no doubt imperfect one; but it is certainly sufficient to shew that it is not the want of artists,* which should prevent our commencing an institution that would afford them the advantages of studying the best models; and the publick an opportunity of beholding, of cheering, and rewarding their labours.

Artists should also not forget, that they have duties to perform, and that this in the end will serve their interest, as the performance of duty always does. They should feel something of a *missionary* spirit, they should by their exertions, and multiplying their performances, endeavour to excite the taste of the publick. They should be satisfied with moderate prices at first; recollecting, that as taste is multiplied the competition of amateurs will in future raise them. The high prices sometimes given for pictures in Europe, has often created delusion. Such prices, are the prizes in a lot-

of the sculptor is as follows: he first makes a drawing of the work he contemplates, he then models it in clay; this model he transfers to marble, the latter operation, though of some nicety, is merely a mechanical process. Mr. Willard observed to the writer, that he could execute much better in marble, than in such a course material as wood; just, said he, as a man can write better on white paper than on brown.

* We have not mentioned Mr. Allston, now in England. If there was any prospect of the publick being awakened to a disposition to encourage the arts, he would no doubt return to reside among us; we know his strong love of country, that he is one of those of whom it may be said, *Au cœurs bien nes que la patrie est cher!* and he would find many friends to cherish and admire him. His accomplished education, the profound knowledge he has acquired in studying for years in all the great schools of art in Europe, would make his experience and science, though a young artist himself, of the greatest importance to a new institution here.

tery abounding in blanks, and to obtain them, great good fortune is often as necessary, as great talents.

An institution for the fine arts, would promote and improve the knowledge of architecture; this would indeed be one of its main objects. Perhaps no country needs melioration in this branch more than the United States.—Private houses, churches, and other publick buildings are constantly erecting; and how few of these ever approach to perfection in either beauty or convenience. The town owes much to the skill and taste of Charles Bulfinch, Esq. who planned many of the publick and private buildings; but who has too often had to complain that his plans were altered and mutilated by the narrow means, or narrow views, of those who had the control. An opportunity would be offered by an institution of this kind to have an exposition of plans, of private houses in town and country, of churches, &c. A reward might be offered for the best, and persons going to build, would be glad to have a chance of seeing different plans, and pay the architect for those they might select. A school of architecture is one of which at this moment we have the greatest need. It would be a disagreeable task to point out some of the blunders that have been committed in different private or publick buildings in our towns; or to shew how grossly all considerations of climate, of situation, and requisite accommodation of the tenant have been overlooked. In the country, how often do you see a square brick house three stories in height, as destitute of comfort as of elegance in its appearance, with four tall chimnies, one at each corner, looking as awkward as a mahogany table laid on its back with the legs in the air. A few miles from town on the edge of one of the turnpike roads, a man has built a brick house *four stories high with a basement story.* It is not an uncommon idea with persons who are building houses in the country to think a house three stories high looks dignified; thus mistaking one of the greatest deformities in architecture, owing its origin to the crowded population and dearness of land in cities, and one of the greatest inconveniences in domestick edifices, for beauty and advantage. Improvement in architecture, has been one of the greatest advantages attending such institutions in Europe.

In estimating the importance of an institution for promoting the fine arts, other consequences than the pleasures de-

rived from contemplating the sublime and beautiful productions of painting and sculpture, should be considered. Their influence is widely diffused, and is felt in many of the productions of more humble industry. A variety of manufactures are greatly benefited by them, and their value in this respect is fully understood in England and France. Besides engravings, and drawings of natural history, there are a variety of articles under the general name of *toys*, that we now import from Europe, and the quantity of which is of course increasing every year, which we might make at home not only for our own consumption, but for the supply of other states. The knowledge of drawing and colouring, the taste and skill to invent and vary patterns and designs, naturally emanates from an establishment for the higher classes of the arts. To men incapable of severe labour, to females and children, the means of employment in a pleasing and honourable industry would be afforded; and the resources of the country increased by creating among ourselves those objects for which we are now tributary to foreign countries. Indeed the arts themselves may in some respects be regarded as a species of manufactures, of manufactures too that will not introduce a coarse, wretched, pauper population, but a class of men who will themselves add to the ornament, the refinement, and the dignity of society.

On all the noble and elevated uses of the fine arts, we shall not here enlarge. Their tendency is to purify, adorn, and elevate every country where they are cherished. They have furnished, in all ages and in all civilized countries, one of the excitements, as well as the most durable memorials, of valour, genius, and beneficence. We yet owe even Washington a monument, and we must now depend on Foreign artists to execute it. A school of the arts, in cultivating the talents that can preserve the features and portray the actions of our great and good men, will honour the nation and prompt its citizens to illustrious deeds of heroism or benevolence. The sculptured tomb which protects the ashes, the simple engraving which on the walls of every parlour delineates the actions of patriotism or humanity, have been found among all nations to be one of the incentives, one of the sweetest rewards, to genius and virtue.

The plan suggested, among a few gentlemen who met together for this object, was to hire some large publick room, to procure from Paris casts of all the busts and statues which

were in the gallery of the Louvre;* and to place them in proper order in this room, where the artists should have a free right to study and copy them. To devote a part of this room to an annual exhibition of the works of American artists, where they might be exposed to the publick, and the same facilities for the sale of them, as in the exhibitions of Europe. That all the receipts from admission, as well as the interest of any surplus funds that might remain from the original subscription, should be devoted every year to the purchase of the works sent by the different artists for exhibition, which should be added to the permanent collection of the Museum. In this way a considerable sum might be expended in purchasing the works of our artists, besides what might be bought by individuals. Several gentlemen have already promised their subscription, and it may be hoped that the publick at large will approve of the design.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

The life of Dr. Richard Price, by William Morgan, F. R. S. has been published very recently in London.† As a piece of Biography it is not remarkably well written. It contains some extracts from letters from Dr. Franklin, Dr. Rush, and Arthur Lee, and mentions that he had a constant correspondence with Mr. Jefferson, while the latter was ambassadour in France. A selection from the correspondence between Dr. Price, and so many eminent men in different countries, would form an interesting volume. Mr. Morgan alludes in a dissatisfied tone, to an answer Dr. Price received from President Adams, to a letter which he

* A gentleman now in Paris, who was one of the promoters of this plan, not only promised his subscription, but that he would take charge of purchasing and shipping the objects at the least expense possible to this country.

† Since writing these few lines, we have seen the 49th Number of the *Edinburgh Review*, in which there is an article that does justice to this meagre work of Mr. Morgan. The following remark is made relative to this letter. 'The letter of Mr. John Adams, in which, "he spoke with 'contempt of the French Revolution at its commencement, and fore-'told the destruction of a million of human beings as its probable con-'sequence," certainly deserved publication, much better than those 'very foolish invectives against Mr. Burke, in which Mr. Morgan de-'scribes him as "possessed by some demon of the nether regions," and 'as a man "whose passions had deranged his understanding."'

had written him, accompanying a copy of his century discourse commemorating the English revolution, in which he indulged in sanguine expectations of the French revolution then commencing. The book having been shewn to Mr. Adams, he consented that the letter should be copied, to prevent any misconception, and we are indebted to a friend for the honour of publishing this copy. Our readers, on observing the date particularly, will be more struck with its contents. The venerable writer was one of the very few persons, who, either in Europe or America, foresaw the consequences of the revolution in its very outset, of which this letter is a most remarkable proof. We are extremely pleased at being able to gratify our readers with such a document of this great Statesman. [Ed.]

Extract from Morgan's Life of Dr. Price, p. 157.

'The hopes and expectations of the friends of freedom 'at this time, appear to have been raised to an extraordi- 'nary height, and particularly those of Dr. Price. Nay, so 'well assured was he of the establishment of a free consti- 'tution in France, and of the subsequent overthrow of des- 'potism throughout Europe as the consequence of it, that 'he never failed to express his gratitude to Heaven for 'having extended his life to the present happy period, in 'which "after sharing the benefits of one revolution, he 'had been spared to be a witness to two other revolutions, 'both glorious." But some of his correspondents were not 'quite so sanguine in their expectations from the last of 'these revolutions; and among these the late American am- 'bassador, Mr. John Adams. In a long letter which he 'wrote to Dr. Price at this time, so far from congratulating 'him on the occasion, he expresses himself in terms of con- 'tempt in regard to the French revolution; and after asking, 'rather too severely, what good was to be expected from a 'nation of Atheists, he concludes with foretelling the de- 'struction of a million of human beings as the probable con- 'sequence of it. These harsh censures and gloomy pre- 'dictions were particularly ungrateful to Dr. Price; nor 'can it be denied, that they must then have appeared as 'the effusions of a splenetic mind, rather than as the sober 'reflections of an unbiassed understanding. From the nu-

'merous letters which he was continually receiving, from 'some of the most enlightened and respectable persons in 'France, as well as from the general tenor of their proceed- 'ings in the National Assembly, Dr. Price had every rea- 'son to entertain a very different opinion from that of Mr. 'Adams.'

Copy of a letter from Mr. Adams to Dr. Price.

NEW-YORK, APRIL 19, 1790.

MY DEAR FRIEND,

Accept of my best thanks for your favour of Feb. 1st. and the excellent Discourse that came with it. I love the zeal and the spirit which dictated this Discourse, and admire the general sentiments of it. From the year 1760 to this hour, the whole scope of my life has been to support such principles and propagate such sentiments. No sacrifices of myself or my family, no dangers, no labours have been too much for me in this great cause. The Revolution in France could not therefore be indifferent to me. But I have learned by awful experience, to rejoice with trembling. I know that Encyclopedists and Economists, Diderot and D'Alembert, Voltaire and Rousseau, have contributed to this great event more than Locke, Sidney, or Hoadley, and perhaps more than the American Revolution. And I own to you I know not what to make of a Republic, of thirty millions of Atheists.

The Constitution is but an experiment, and must and will be altered. I know it to be impossible that France should be long governed by it. If the Sovereignty is to reside in one; the King, the Princes of the blood, and principal Quality, will govern it at their pleasure, as long as they can agree. When they differ, they will go to war, and act over again all the Tragedies of the Valois, Bourbons, Lorrains, Guises and Colign's two hundred years ago.

The Greeks sung the praises of Harmodius and Aristogiton for restoring equal laws.—Too many Frenchmen, after the example of two many Americans, pant for equality of Persons and Property. The impracticability of this, God Almighty has decreed, and the advocates for liberty who attempt it will surely suffer for it.

I thank you, Sir, for your kind compliment.—As it has been the great aim of my life to be useful; if I had any rea-

son to think I was so, as you seem to suppose, it would make me happy. 'For eminence' I care nothing.—For though I pretend not to be exempt from ambition, or any other human passion, I have been convinced from my infancy, and have been confirmed every year and day of my life, that the mechanic and peasant are happier than any nobleman or magistrate or king; and that the higher a man rises, if he has any sense of duty, the more anxious he must be.

Our new Government is a new attempt to divide a Sovereignty. A fresh essay at *Imperium in Imperio*. It cannot therefore be expected to be very stable or very firm. It will prevent us for a time from drawing our swords upon each other; and when it will do that no longer, we must call a Convention to reform it.

The difficulty of bringing millions to agree in any measures, to act by any rule, can never be conceived by him who has not tried it. It is incredible how small is the number in any nation of those, who comprehend any system of Constitution, or Administration; and those few it is wholly impossible to unite.

I am a sincere inquirer after truth.—But I find very few who discover the same truths. The King of Prussia has found one, which has also fallen in my way; 'That it is the 'peculiar quality of the human understanding, that exam-'ple should correct no man; the blunders of the Fathers 'are lost to their Children, and every generation must com-'mit its own.'

I have never sacrificed my judgment to Kings, Ministers, nor People, and I never will. When either shall see as I do, I shall rejoice in their protection, aid, and honour; but I see no prospect that either will ever think as I do, and therefore I shall never be a favourite with either. I do not desire to be.

But I sincerely wish and devoutly pray, that a hundred years of civil wars, may not be the portion of all Europe, for the want of a little attention to the true elements of the science of government.

With sentiments, moral sentiments, which are and must be eternal, I am your friend,

JOHN ADAMS.

Dr. Price, *Hackney*.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

Miscellaneous Extracts from Foreign Journals.

In the Eclectick Review for September, there is an article on 'a sermon preached at Leeds, on occasion of the execution of Mr. Joseph Blackburn, attorney at law, for forgery, by Richard Winter Hamilton, minister of Albion Chapel, 4th. edition.' The Reviewers are very indignant at this sermon, for which they gave various substantial reasons. The preacher is very much admired at Leeds, and his sermon had gone through four editions. The criticks make only one extract, which they say is a fair specimen of the whole, in which case this must be a very remarkable discourse. They introduce their quotation by saying :—'to illustrate the progressive nature of sin, Mr. Hamilton says.'

'If the character throws itself into any particular attitude, it is difficult to recover the natural posture ; and, though the singularity might arise from merely an accidental cause, yet it may require some lengthened process to rectify.—Through the influence of habit, *feeling may strain it from its native scope, and the powers of the constitution be wrenched from their original sockets, the machinery of the mind, as it is first thrown into action, works through a roughness of wheel and stubbornness of spring, with jarring and confounding attrition ; but when the action is continued, the philosophic chimera of perpetual motion is realized and confirmed.* And when habits are formed upon evil passions and principles, it is impossible to calculate on their mischievous extent. We have then to grapple, not merely with the strength of our depravity, *but with the disadvantages of a prepared barrier and circumvallation.* We have then to resist, not an enemy conscious of its injustice, but a commonwealth that relies upon precedent, and is regulated by law. Ah! the will is always volatile to sin, why should we then fan its heats and accelerate its impulse. The mind always gravitates to evil, why then should we multiply its tendency by additional weight and bias ? *Who would add momentum to an avalanche from the Andes, or wing with more cruel speed the bolt that hisses from the secret place of thunder ?*'

The publick expenditure of Great Britain for the year ending January 5, 1815, was, by the returns laid before Par-

liament, 117,587,984*l.* 10. 5. Calculating this sum at five shillings for a dollar, it will make the annual expenditure in Dollars amount to 470,331,938.

There are in England ninety-four publick libraries, eight in Scotland, and ten in Ireland, making one hundred and twelve. These include those of the Colleges, Cathedrals, and publick offices.

THE KING OF NAPLES.

Ferdinand 4th is in his fifty-sixth year; in his person he is tall and straight, rather thin than corpulent, his face is very long, his hair aad eyebrows white, and his countenance on the whole far from comely, but lighted up by an expression of good nature and benignity that pleases more and lasts longer than symmetry of features. His manners are easy, his conversation affable, and his whole deportment (princes will pardon me if I presume to mention it as a compliment,) that of a thorough gentleman. With regard to mental endowments, nature seems to have placed him on a level with the great majority of mankind, that is, in a state of mediocrity, and without either defect or excellency; a state the best adapted to sovereign power, because the least likely to abuse it. If one degree below it, a monarch becomes the tool of every designing knave near his person, whether valet or minister; if only one degree above it, he becomes restless and unintentionally mischievous, like the Emperour Joseph; and if cursed with genius, he turns out like Frederick, a conquerour and a despot. But the good sense which Ferdinand derived from nature required the advantages of cultivation to develope and direct it; and of these advantages he was unfortunately deprived, in part perhaps by the early absence of his father, and in part by the negligence or design, first of his tutors, and afterwards, of his courtiers. Being raised to the throne in the eighth year of his age, and shortly after left by his father under the direction of a regency, he cannot be supposed to be inclined, nor they capable of compelling him, to application. The result has been as usual, a great propensity to active exercises, and an aversion to studious pursuits. The ignorance which follows from these habits is such as to extend to articles, known among us to every person above daily labour, and it not unfrequently shews itself in conversation, and be-

trays his majesty into mistakes that sometimes startle even well-trained courtiers. Thus, mention being accidentally made in his presence of the great power of the Turks some centuries ago, he observed, that it was no wonder, *as all the world were Turks before the birth of our Saviour.* Upon another occasion, when the cruel execution of Louis 16th, then recent, happening to be the subject of conversation, one of the courtiers remarked, that it was the second crime of that kind that stained the annals of modern Europe; the King asked with surprise, where such a deed had been perpetrated before; the courtier replying, in England. Ferdinand asked with a look of disbelief, what King of England was ever put to death by his people? The other of course answering, Charles 1st; his Majesty exclaimed, with some degree of warmth and indignation, 'No, Sir, it 'is impossible, you are misinformed; the English are too 'loyal and too brave a people to be guilty of such an atro- 'cious a crime.' He added 'depend upon it, Sir, it is a 'mere tale trumped up by the Jacobins at Paris to excuse 'their own guilt by the example of so great a nation; it may 'do very well to deceive their own people, but will not I 'hope, dupe us.'—*Monthly Magazine.*

PROPHECY ON REFORM.

When a lawyer sheds tears while he's striking a docket;
When assessors heave sighs while they empty your pocket;
When reviewers feel pangs like the authors they cut up;
When conscience for sale shall no longer be put up;
When placemen, unask'd, throw up sinecures;
When any quack medicine performs any cures;
When women of eighty confess they're in years;
When they make such confession without shedding tears;
When poor curates thrive while fat Bishops get skinny;
When a note with a shilling is preferred to a guinea;
When there's peace because tyrants are weary of killing;
When a good thumping loaf's to be had for a shilling;
When like cattle at market, base voters ar'n't sold;
When tea scandal ceases, and fish fags don't scold;
When true taste shall suffer no more like a martyr;
When Shakespeare's preferr'd to Timour the Tartar;
When ale's made again from good malt and hops;
When Corn Jews are found to rejoice at good crops;
When Butchers, dear souls! low'r the price of their chops;

When truth shall no longer be deemed a foul libel;
When men follow precepts they preach from the Bible;
When symptoms like these shall be seen through the land;
They'll seem to portend, '*A reform is at hand.*'

Morning Chronicle.

THE LATE SPANISH GENERAL PORLIER.

His Excellency Don Juan Diez Porlier is about thirty years of age, small in person, thin, but of a handsome appearance. He is nephew of the late Minister Porlier, Marquis de Baxamar. He served as a midshipman in the battle of Trafalgar. He first became known in the late war against the tyranny of Buonaparte, by collecting a handful of deserters from the actions in Castile under General Cuesta, with which only amounting to thirty men, he attacked fifty French advantageously posted near the city of Palencia, whom he killed or took and presented to the Junta of Asturias. The latter then gave him the rank of Colonel, and he immediately formed a *Guerilla* corps, called *Cuerpo Franco*, with which he did prodigies of valour against the enemy. This corps afterwards became a respectable division. What gave him most credit in the time of the provincial Juntas, was his retreat from St. Andero, surrounded by four times his number of enemies, from whom he escaped, and even took and killed some of the French. This action, covered Porlier with glory, and Ballasteros with shame, who made a disgraceful retreat to Gijon, in consequence of which that part of the country was abandoned. The other illustrious actions of Porlier are contained in the publick papers of that day. He was latterly made a Mariscal de Campo (Major-General) and his character is frank and noble. He is also a man of great energy and readiness, as is proved by what happened between him and the Marchioness of Matarosa; to whose daughter he is now married. The Marchioness was proud and haughty, and before she consented to the marriage of her daughter, she required Porlier to exhibit his titles of nobility. To the person sent to wait on him with this request, Porlier answered—'Tell 'the Marchioness from me that my name is JUAN DIEZ POR-'LIER, and I require to know whether her daughter is to be 'married to me or to my parchments; if to the latter, they 'may both go to the Devil.'—*Morning Chronicle.*

INSCRIBED TO AN ALDERMAN.

Dum rediens fugat astra Phoebus, Hor. O. 21. lib. 3.

Know ye the land where the leaf of the myrtle
Is bestowed on good livers in eating sublime?
Where the race for fat ven'son, and love of the turtle,
Preside o'er the realms of an Epicure clime?
Know ye the land where the juice of the vine,
Makes Aldermen learned and Bishops divine?
Where each *Corporation*, deep flush'd with its bloom,
Waxes fat o'er the eyes of the claret's perfume?
Thick spread is the table with choicest of fruit,
And the voice of the reveller never is mute:
Their rich robes, though varied, in beauty may vie,
Yet the purple of Bacchus is deepest in dye:—
Tis the clime of the East—the return of the sun
Looks down on the deeds which his children have done;
Then wild is the note and discordant the yell,
When reeling and staggering, they hiccup—farewell.

Morning Chronicle.

April 10th, died in Connaught-Place, aged 70, G. Ellis, Esq. of Sunning-Hill: by which event society and literature have been deprived of one of their ornaments, and his friends have lost a man peculiarly formed to feel and inspire the warmest sentiments of friendship. One of his earliest attempts in literature was a share in the celebrated series of political satires, entitled 'The Rolliad, also Probationary Odes,' &c. Mr. Ellis was the writer of that severe and unjust invective against Mr. Pitt, in the second number of the Rolliad, which begins

Pert without fire, without experience sage.

He afterwards changed his political connexions; but it was not till after his return from Lille, whither he had gone in 1797, with his friend Lord Malmesbury, that he became personally acquainted with Mr. Pitt. At the first interview two men of wit, the friends of both, amused themselves with allusions to the Rolliad, which as they probably intended, visibly embarrassed Mr. Ellis. Mr. Pitt turned

round, and with a smile said, in a manner full of grace and good humour,

Immo age, et a prima dic hospes origine nobis.

He instantly relieved Mr. Ellis from his embarrassment; and both were probably afterwards amused by the applications which the verses immediately following might have suggested.

Insidias inquit Danaûm, casusque tuorum,
Erroresque tuos.

To pardon political pleasantries, or even invectives, is an effort of placability, which did not require so safe and unassailable a greatness as that of Mr. Pitt. It was Mr. Ellis's singular fortune to have been also engaged in another collection of political pleasantries, 'The Anti-Jacobin,' with two colleagues of brilliant talents, with whom he continued in affectionate friendship the rest of his life. In 1790, he published the first edition of the 'Specimens of Early English Poetry,' which, with the enlarged edition in 1801, and the 'Specimens of Early English Romances,' formed an important contribution towards that growing study of our ancient literature, which has breathed a youthful spirit into English Poetry. His Essays on the formation and progress of the English language are models of abridgment, in which useful information is shortly and modestly communicated, without inaccuracy or obscurity on the one hand, and without pretention or pedantry on the other. In the abridgment of the old Romances, these prolix tales are rendered more amusing by a gentle sneer, which is constantly visible through the serious narrative, and which enlivens the perusal without destroying the interest. In the preface and appendix to the tabliaux of his friend Mr. Way, are to be found some of the purest and most classical passages of Addisonian composition which this age has produced. Mr. Ellis had been employed some time on a life of the late Mr. Windham, which was intended to accompany some works of that gentleman. The latter years of his life were embittered by maladies, which his virtues, and the friendship that they, still more than his talents, had procured, happily enabled him to endure with cheerful patience.

Literary Panorama.

In one of the English Magazines, a question has been lately proposed, to find a word that will rhyme with *silver*, it is said that one cannot be found in the language. If any of our readers can suggest one, we wish they would communicate it.

French Caricatures. The *Geant Noir*, the first number of which has just appeared, is remarkably bold. It has even had the audacity to indulge in a sort of contemptible ridicule of the Duchess of Angouleme, by stating that when that Princess visited the Abbe Sicard's establishment (for the deaf and dumb) she complained that his pupils did not cry *Vive le Roi!*—The following caricature has been sold privately. On the top of a large *mat de cocagne* (a long pole covered with soap) is placed a crown. Louis XVIII. is climbing up to reach it, and says to the Duke of Wellington who is below him, 'support me or I shall fall.' The King of Prussia who is still lower, is made to exclaim, 'Let 'me take what suits me.' The Emperour of Russia says haughtily, 'Behold my work.' The Emperour of Austria is supporting them all on his shoulders, while young Napoleon, who is pulling him by the skirts of his coat, cries 'Dear Grandpapa, leave all these folks to themselves.' The Emperour replies, 'If I leave them they will fall upon 'me.' Buonaparte, who is in a corner, observing what is passing, says to himself, 'I climbed up twice without any 'help.' [*Courier.*]

CHARACTER OF MARET, DUKE OF BASSANO, BY THE ARCHBISHOP OF MECHLIN.

He began his career in 1790, with reporting the proceedings of the Constituent Assembly for a newspaper. Read the now neglected Memoirs of Dumourier, and you will find him in the embassy of Chauvelin at London, at the time of the death of Louis XV. and on the eve of supplanting the ambassadour, when the whole gang were driven from London. The diplomacy of the Convention appeared to have nothing alarming, or capable of stirring the robust fibres which form the tissue of his heart. He was entrusted by the Convention with that mission which the Austrians disturbed at the entrance of the Valteline, by seizing him,

Semonville, and I know not what other incendiary. Restored to France by exchange for the daughter of Louis XVI. on the establishment of the Consulate he succeeded M. Lagarde, as Secretary to the Council of Government, and he held that post until he succeeded M. De Champagny as Minister of Foreign Affairs—that office had long been the object of his ambition. The labours of the Cabinet, in their nature always obscure, presented to him a too limited horizon, too contracted a theatre for his talents. He would be the minister of France, or rather of Europe; for in the state in which things then were, the French Minister for Foreign Affairs was nothing less.

His mode of discussing a subject is heavy, embarrassed, never precise, nor luminous; his elocution, wiredrawn. His principles those of convenience, force, and all that train of sophisms of which French diplomacy has been composed for these last twenty-five years. The day spent in dissipation, the hour for labour at length arrives, and that is almost always the hour at which nature reposes. The clock strikes twelve, business is recollected, and the Minister encloses himself in his cabinet. The Clerks are called and urged to work. Evil to him whom sleep overpowers. About five in the morning the active Minister goes to repose from his works of darkness, leaving to his wretched underlings the care of digesting the high conceptions with which he had entrusted them. Demosthenes said, that his labours smelt of oil. Those of the Duke of Bassano have no better odour.

Flattery is a certain way of succeeding with the Duke of Bassano. Every thing about him must be flattered and admired, down to the Duchess's lapdog. It was said by a man of wit, that that dog had made many Auditors and Prefects.

The only talent, possessed by the Duke of Bassano, was that of translating the Emperour's ideas. It was curious to see with what an air he contemplated and listened to him. You would have sworn that he was worshipping him. The repression of his own reflection was carried to such a height, that he seemed to alienate his own mind in favour of that of the Emperour. He wrote to me on the 6th of July the following words: 'The discourse you addressed to me se-'duced me, but the Emperor remarked to me that it was 'bad, and he is right.'

The Duke of Bassano perfected that system of intrigue and deception, by which the political characters, who have

for so many years governed France, have constantly sought to distort facts.

Publick opinion accuses the Duke of Bassano, with the most decided inclination for those proceedings, which infringe the security of other States. He is reproached with having declared against peace at Dresden, at a period when it would have left France in a highly flourishing state, even after the reverses of the Russian campaign. He is also reproached with obstinately persisting in his warlike disposition after the battle of Leipsic, and during the negotiations at Chatillon. To crown these serious charges, he is believed to have acted a considerable part in the return of Napoleon, and he has shewn a marked zeal for maintaining at the head of Affairs in France, a man who could not but be as fatal to the country, as useful to this Minister. During the short existence of the Peerage, he was remarked for his warmth in favour of Napoleon I. and Napoleon II. as if one of them had not been enough.

ANECDOTE OF THE ARCHBISHOP OF MECHLIN.

The Abbe de Pradt, whom Bonaparte had made Archbishop of Mechlin, and who was Ambassadour at Warsaw in November 1813, has lately published a very curious history of his Embassy, which, while it presents a lively picture of the tyrant's ambition, displays in as strong a light the author's vanity. The following laughable anecdote on the subject of this book is in circulation at Paris :— 'Before publishing his work, M. De Pradt read it to several 'persons in private. In a select circle where he had promised to read the first part of it, there happened to be present 'a great Captain, whom the battle of Waterloo had raised 'to the highest pinnacle of military glory. M. De Pradt 'commenced it in these terms:—The Emperour was surprised uttering in a profound reverie these memorable 'words—*had it not been for one man, I should have been* 'master of the world. At these words all eyes were turned to the illustrious stranger—a fluttering murmur made 'the application of them to him, and all were pleased with 'themselves for seizing so rapidly their spirit.' M. De 'Pradt continued his reading, '*that man was myself.* The 'surprise of the company may be conceived; it would be 'easier to imagine than express it.'

Marlborough and Wellington. The 5th number of the *Tatler*, contains the following paragraph—'But, I believe 'the reader outruns me, and fixes his imagination upon the 'Duke of *Marlborough*. It is methinks a pleasing reflec- 'tion to consider the dispensations of Providence in the 'fortune of this illustrious man, who in the space of forty 'years, has passed through all the gradations of human 'life, until he has ascended to the character of a Prince, 'and become the scourge of a tyrant, who sat on one of the 'greatest thrones of Europe.'

What may be said of *Wellington?*

The Camp at Vertus. A private letter in one of the French papers gives the following description of this camp: I have seen the Camp at Vertus, you would be delighted with the good order that prevails there. In that immense plain, each corps has endeavoured to place itself where there is wood and water, articles scarce enough in this part of the country: thus they form separate camps; but the plain being bare of wood, they may all be seen at once with the naked eye, and on approaching them we perceive that nearly the same system of order prevails in all: piles of arms in the first line; behind, thatched covers for the troops: to the right the cannon behind the caissons, and more in the rear, the camp oven and the baggage. Every thing even to the kitchens is disposed with regularity. I passed through them at the hour when they were getting dinner; the kettles were placed in a line at a convenient distance from the barracks, and distributed by various divisions of six each. What struck me forcibly, was the silence that reigned among this collected multitude of soldiers. Here and there were seen peasants carrying provisions, and their appearance bespoke rather the hope of gain than the fear of pillage. In the little town of Vertus, the head quarters, there is an astonishing bustle: but there is the same tranquillity on the part of the inhabitants: no disputes about lodgings, distributions, &c. Erections of every kind have sprung up with rapidity—coffee houses, eating houses, show booths, &c. At one of these booths, I saw written up, *Mocha Coffee, Ices, Sherbet.* In fine, Alexander must have found here an image of one of those creations of towns, which presented themselves to Catharine in her journey in the Ukraine.

[The subject of mendicity has lately excited great attention in England, and received a parliamentary investigation previous to adopting a system for correcting it. Its abuses in London are almost incredible, and the street beggars are very rarely indeed real objects of charity. In the course of examination, many most curious facts were related by different witnesses, and some accounts of the most remarkable beggars given. Their gains were various, and in some instances averaged two guineas a day. The more opulent of the fraternity one day in the week, or at some stated period retired from the scene of their labours, and assumed a decent dress and sometimes considerable expense in their mode of living. The following anecdote, extracted from an English paper, though anonymous, is not so extraordinary as some that were related by respectable witnesses on their own knowledge.]

Mendicity.—An anonymous correspondent has favoured us with the following curious account, which he assures us is genuine:—He was walking in the neighbourhood of Edmonton with a friend, who requested his particular attention to a female, then happening to be in the same pathway with them, she having attracted much notice in that quarter, in consequence of her recent marriage under very peculiar circumstances.—She had been a servant at a tavern there, and waited on the guests of the Sunday ordinary, which is held throughout the year. At this ordinary one gentleman was a *constant* attendant, and was generally supposed to be one of the numerous clerks of the city, who have no other opportunity of enjoying the fresh air. He usually occupied the same seat, and appeared much reserved, except when addressing the maid servant, towards whom his demeanour was very kind and condescending—and at length he made a formal proposal of marriage to her. The girl, who had more sense than often falls to the lot of persons in that sphere of life, did not object to the proposal, but earnestly entreated that a small sum might be settled as a provision against any casualties, which, in consequence of her intended elevation, she might be less able to bear. This suggestion met with all the attention that could be hoped for. The gentleman agreed to settle one thousand pounds, and lost no time in selling out stock sufficient for raising that sum. The happy day was now appointed, but not

before the lover had explained to the fair object of his choice, that they could only meet *once a week*, and had exacted from her a promise never to urge him to a further explanation of the circumstances, which reduced him to the necessity of submitting to so painful a separation!—They were accordingly married, and went on very pleasantly, until the lady prompted by a curiosity which (whether true or not we will not venture to affirm) is said to be peculiar to her sex, requested that he would confide the secret to her. At this request, the manner of the enamoured spouse became much altered, and after betraying a considerable degree of irritation, he *commanded* her never to obtrude the subject upon him again. The storm was thus suffered to blow over for a time; but curiosity is one of the most powerful motives agitating the human breast, and this new *Psyche* had not philosophy enough to withstand it. She again entreated a solution of the mystery, but the entreaty was met only by a frown, and she pleaded her affection—and finding all of no avail, she threatened to have him watched to the place of his retreat. This had the effect of extorting a declaration from him, and he assured her that she might probably discover his secret, but, that *if she did, she would never see him afterwards.* Notwithstanding this declaration, made with great coolness and firmness, the imprudent woman persisted, and by the help of some busy friends, was introduced to her husband in his disguise, as one of the common beggars of the metropolis. She spoke to him in that situation, but as he then told her, for the *last* time, and she has never seen him since!

[The celebrated sculptor, Canova, was sent by the Pope to Paris to reclaim the works of art which the French carried off from Rome. When Buonaparte was first Consul, he invited Canova to fix himself in Paris. He answered, that he did not meddle with politicks, but that he never could wish to live under the dominion of him, who had destroyed the organization of his native country, (Venice.) The following are extracts of letters from him, taken from an English paper. It should not be forgotten on this question of the restoration of the objects of art taken from Rome, that when it was first contemplated, all the principal French artists signed a remonstrance against it, addressed to the Directory.]

Paris, Sept. 31.

The cause of Fine Arts is at length safe into port; and it is to the generous and unremitted exertions of the British Minister, Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Secretary Hamilton, that Rome will be indebted for the triumphing in the demands that I came hither to make in her name. What gratitude ought we not to feel to the magnanimous British nation! Fully does she deserve that the Arts, in return for this generous act, should join hand in hand to raise a perpetual monument to her name; but the best and more lasting monument will be engraved in the heart of every Italian, who, on beholding the sacred objects torn from their country, again restored to her, will recollect the nation that stood forth as their advocate for this restitution, and will call down upon her the blessings of Providence.

Our work is about to begin. Tuscany, Milan and Venice have retaken all that belongs to them. I shall be the last and shall require more time; for the objects claimed by Rome, as you well know, are much more numerous. I am burning with impatience to see every thing packed up and gone, then will I fly across the sea to *spatiate* in your magnificent metropolis, with my heart at ease, and to embrace you.

Paris, Oct. 5th.

We are at last beginning to drag forward from this great cavern of stolen goods, the precious objects of art taken from Rome. On the 2d instant, among the many fine paintings that were removed, we noticed that stupendous production, the *Transfiguration*, the *Communion* of *St. Jerome*, the *Virgin* of Fuligno; the next day several other exquisite pictures came away, together with the group of *Cupid and Psyche*, the two *Brutus's*, the very ancient bust of *Ajax*, and other no less precious objects of sculpture. Yesterday the *Dying Gladiator* left his French abode, and the *Torso*. We remove this day the two first statues in the world, the *Apollo* and the *Laocoon*. Tomorrow *Mercury* will quit the house between *Flora* of the capitol and the *Venus*. The *Muses* will follow next, and so on to the close of this portentous procession.

October 9th.

In my letter of the 5th instant, I informed you what we were doing here in regard to the objects of art, which we are

removing from the Museum. The most valuable of them are to go by land, and will set off next week accompanied by the celebrated Venetian horses, and all the other precious articles belonging to Lombardy, Piedmont and Tuscany. The convoy will be escorted by strong detachments of Austrian troops. The remainder, which may belong to Rome, will be embarked and sent by sea to Italy. Among these, I am happy to inform you, for I know how much you will rejoice at it, that even all our ancient manuscripts, medals, and other equally valuable objects of antiquity will be included, to the great satisfaction no doubt of the loyal *Denon*, and of that *eminent Italian patriot* E. A. Visconti, members of the Institute.

P. S. I had nearly forgot to tell you, that even the painting and statues lately belonging to the Albani family are to be restored. Do not believe all the lies which the French papers are authorized to pour forth about the Venus de Medicis. She is still as she was before, *salva et incolumis*.

Died at Berne, Switzerland, of an apoplexy, in his 46th year, GODFRIED MIND, a painter celebrated for his extraordinary delineations of Bears and Cats. His father, still living in Berne, is a native of Lipsch, in Upper Hungary, and learned the trade of a cabinet maker at Kremnitz. The son was a pupil of Frendenberger, and his extraordinary talents in the representation of various species of animals, but especially those abovementioned, in paintings in water-colours, are attested not only by the numerous productions of his pencil in the portfolios of various amateurs at Berne, Zurich, Basle, and other places, but also by the high encomiums passed on his performances by many artists of the highest eminence. Madame Lebrun, of Paris, perhaps the first living female painter, never failed in her different journies through Switzerland, to purchase several of Mind's performances, declaring at the same time, that they were real master-pieces of their kind, and would be acknowledged as such in the French metropolis. It was she who first gave to our artist the appellation of *Le Raphael des Chats*, the Raphael of Cats, which he has ever since retained, and by which many strangers enquire for him at Berne. *Mind* was certainly well worthy of this name, not only on account of the correctness of his drawings of those

animals, and the true though dignified delineation of their forms, but more especially on account of the life and spirit which he transfused into them in his pictures. The affection of *Mind* for the feline race might be termed fraternal. When he was at work, a favourite cat generally set by his side; and he was often seen employed at his table with an old cat on his lap, and two or three kittens on both shoulders, or even in the hollow formed at the back of his neck by the inclination of his head. Thus encumbered, he would sit for hours together at his work, and abstain from every motion that could in the least incommode his beloved favourites. In winter evenings, Mind used to amuse himself with carving bears, cats, and other animals, in miniature, out of wild chesnut tree, with such accuracy and skill, that they had a rapid sale, and were bought up by many as orments for their chimney pieces. It is to be regretted that insects soon attacked the wood, and thus destroyed these pretty little figures. *Mind* passed many of his happiest hours at the Bears' den in Berne, where from remote antiquity two live bears have been constantly kept. No sooner did *Friedli*, by which name he was best known at Berne, make his appearance, than the bears hastened to him with a friendly grunt, upon which they were invariably rewarded with a piece of bread, or an apple, from the pocket of their benefactor and friend. Next to cats and bears, *Mind* received the greatest delight from looking over works of art, particularly prints in which animals were introduced. Among these, however, the lions of Rubens, some pieces by Rembrandt and Potter, and Reidinger's stags, were the only copies that he allowed to be excellent. With the other animals by Riedinger he found fault, almost without exception, as incorrect. The bears by the same artist he characterized as absolute monsters; neither did he entertain a much more favourable opinion of the celebrated cats of Cornelius Vischer, and Hollar. On other works, such chiefly as hunting and historical compositions, he often pronounced most severe opinions, without the least regard to the celebrity of the master; and on other matters, notwithstanding his secluded life, he displayed profound penetration, and correct judgment. The following parody of the verses of Catullus, on Lesbia's sparrow, has been proposed as an appropriate inscription for this artist:

Lugete, O Feles, Ursique lugete!
Mortuus est vobis amicus.

THE MONARCH MINSTREL.—A SONNET BY LORD BYRON.

The Harp the Monarch Minstrel swept,
The king of men—the lord of Heaven,—
Which *Musick* hallowed while she wept
O'er tones her heart of hearts had given—
Redoubled be her tears—its chords are riven!

It softened men of iron mould,
It gave them virtues not their own;
No ear so dull—no soul so cold
That felt not—fired not to the tone,
Till David's lyre grew mightier than his Throne!

It told the triumphs of our King—
It wafted glory to our God—
It made our gladdened vallies ring—
The cedars bow—the mountains nod—
Its sounds aspired to Heaven, and there abode.

Since then, though heard on earth no more—
Devotion and her daughter, Love,
Still bid the bursting spirit soar,
To sounds that seem as from above,
In dreams that day's broad light cannot remove.

FROM THE MONTHLY MAGAZINE FOR OCTOBER.

Extracts from a Memoir on the Ruins of Babylon, on the east side of the Euphrates; by Claudius James Rich, Esq. resident for the Honourable East India Company at the Court of the Pacha of Bagdad.

I was completely deceived in my anticipation about Babylon: instead of a few insulated mounds, I found the whole face of the country covered with vestiges of building, in some places consisting of brick walls surprisingly fresh, in others merely of a vast succession of mounds of rubbish of such indeterminate figures, variety, and extent, as to involve the person who would have formed any theory in

inextricable confusion. The whole country between Bagdad and Hellah is perfectly flat, and (with the exception of a few spots as you approach the latter place) an uncultivated waste. That it was at some former period in a far different state, is evident from the number of canals by which it is traversed, now dry and neglected; and the quantity of heaps of earth, covered with fragments of brick and broken tiles, which are seen in every direction—the indisputable traces of former population.

At present the only inhabitants of this tract, are the Zobeide Arabs, the Sheikh of which tribe is responsible for the security of the road, which is so much frequented that robberies are comparatively seldom heard of. At convenient distances, khans or caravanserais are erected for the accommodation of travellers, and to each of them is attached a small village of Fellahs.

The ruins of Babylon may be said to commence from Mohawil, the whole country between it and Hellah exhibiting at intervals, traces of buildings, in which are discoverable burnt and unburnt bricks and bitumen; three mounds, in particular, attract attention from their magnitude. The ground to the right and left of the road bears the appearance of being partially and occasionally a morass, though, at the time we passed it, it was perfectly dry; the road which is due south, lies within a quarter of a mile of the celebrated mass, called by Pietro Della Valle, the Tower of Belus; Hellah is nine miles from Mohawil, and nearly forty eight from Bagdad.

Hellah is called by Abulfeda, Hellah Bere Moreid. The district called by the natives El-Aredh Babel, extends on both sides of the Euphrates. Its latitude, according to Niebuhr, is 32°. 28', and it is situated on the western bank of the Euphrates, a few shops and huts only being on the eastern. It is meanly built, and its population does not exceed between 6 and 7000, consisting of Arabs and Jews, (who have one synagogue, there being no Christians, and only such Turks as are employed in the government.) Among the gardens to the west of the Husseinia gate, is the Mesjid-esshems, a mosque built on the spot where popular tradition says, a miracle was wrought, similar to that of the prophet Joshua. This country abounds in pretended tombs of prophets. On the Tigris, between Bagdad and Bassora, they show the sepulchre of Ezra; twelve miles in

the desert, to the south west of Hellah, is that of Ezekiel, and to the southward, the tomb of Job: the two former are places of pilgrimage of the Jews, who do not acknowledge those of Job and Joshua.

The inhabitants of Hellah bear a very bad character. The air is salubrious, and the soil extremely fertile, producing great quantities of rice, dates, and grain of different kinds, though it is not cultivated to above half the degree of which it is susceptible. The grand cause of this fertility, is the Euphrates, the banks of which are lower, and the stream more equal than the Tigris. Strabo says, that it was a stadium in breadth at Babylon; according to Rennel, about 491 English feet, or, D'Anville's still more reduced scale, 330. Niebuhr says, at Hellah it is 400 Danish feet broad; my measurement by a graduated line at the bridge there, brings it to 75 fathoms, or 450 feet. Its breadth, however, varies in its passage through the ruins. The Euphrates rises at an earlier period than the Tigris; in the middle of the winter it increases a little, but falls again soon after; in March it again rises, and in the latter end of April is at its full, continuing so to the latter end of June. When at its height it overflows the surrounding country, fills the canals dug for its reception, without the slightest exertion of labour, and facilitates agriculture in a surprising degree. The ruins of Babylon are then inundated, so as to render many parts of them inaccessible, by converting the vallies among them into morasses. But the most remarkable inundation of the Euphrates is at Felugiah, twelve leagues to the westward of Bagdad, where on breaking down the dike which confines its waters within their proper channel, they flow over the country, and extend nearly to the banks of the Tigris, with a depth sufficient to render them navigable for rafts and flat-bottomed boats.

The water of the Euphrates is esteemed more salubrious than that of the Tigris. Its general course through the site of Babylon, is north and south. I questioned the fishermen who ply on the river, respecting its bottom, and they all agreed that bricks and other fragments of building are very commonly found in it.

On the ruins of Babylon there is not a single tree growing, excepting one old one; but in the intervals of the ruins, where, in all probability, no building ever stood, there

are some patches of cultivation. I made the most diligent search all through the gardens, but found not the slightest vestige of ruins, though previously I heard of many, an example of the value of information resting solely on the authority of the natives. The reason is obvious. Ruins composed like those of Babylon, of heaps of rubbish, impregnated with nitre, cannot be cultivated, and any inferiour mound would, of course, be levelled in making the garden.

The ruins of the eastern quarter of Babylon commence about two miles above Hellah, and consist of two large masses or mounds, connected with and lying south and north of each other, and several smaller ones which cross the plain at different intervals. The northern termination of this plain is Pietro Della Valle's ruin, from the southeast angle of which (where it evidently once joined, being only obliterated there by two canals,) proceeds a narrow ridge or mound of earth, wearing the appearance of having been a boundary wall. This ridge forms a kind of circular inclosure, and joins the southern point of the most southerly of the two grand masses.

The river bank is skirted by a ruin, which I shall for perspicuity's sake call its embankment, though, as will hereafter be seen, there is good reason for supposing it was never intended for one. It commences on a line with the lower extremity of the southern grand mound, and is there nearly three hundred yards broad at its base, from the east angle of which a mound proceeds, taking a sweep to the south east, so as to be nearly parallel with, and forty yards more to the south than the boundary: this loses itself in the plain, and is in fact the most southerly of all the ruins. The embankment is continued in a right line to the north, and diminishes in breadth, but increases in elevation, till at the distance of seven hundred and fifty yards from its commencement, where it is forty feet perpendicular height, and is interrupted by a break nearly of the same breadth with the river: at this point a triangular piece of ground commences, recently gained from the river, which deserts its original channel above, and returns to it again here: this gained ground is a hundred and ten yards in length, and two hundred and fifty in breadth at its angle or point, and along its base are traces of a continuation of the embankment, which is there a narrow line, that soon loses

itself. Above this the bank of the river affords nothing worthy of remark; for though in some places there are slight vestiges of building, they were evidently not connected with the abovementioned embankment.

The whole of the area inclosed by the boundary on the east and south, and river on the west, is two miles and six hundred yards in breadth from east to west (exclusive of the gained ground, which I do not take into account, as comprising no part of the ruins,) as much from Pietro De-la Valle's ruin to the southern part of the boundary, or two miles and one thousand yards to the most southerly mound of all, which has been already mentioned as branching off from the embankment. This space is again longitudinally subdivided into nearly half, by a straight line of nearly the same kind as the boundary, but much its inferiour in point of size. This may have crossed the whole enclosure from south to north, but at present only a mile of it remains. Exactly parallel with it, and a little more than a hundred yards to the west of it, is another line precisely of a similar description, but still smaller and shorter; its northern termination is a high heap of rubbish of a curious red colour, nearly three hundred yards long and one hundred broad, terminating on the top in a ridge: it has been dug into various parts, but few or no fine whole bricks have been found in it. All the ruins of Babylon are contained within the western division of the area, that is, between the innermost of these lines and the river, there being vestiges of building in the eastern or largest division between the outermost line and the external boundary. Before entering into a minute description of the ruins, to avoid repetition, it is necessary to state that they consist of mounds of earth, formed by the decomposition of building, channelled and furrowed by the weather, and the surface of them strewed with pieces of brick, bitumen and pottery.

On taking a view of the ruins from south to north, the first object that attracts attention is the low mound connected with the embarkment; on it are two little parallel walls close together, and only a few feet in height and breadth, which bear indisputable marks of having formed part of a Mahommetan oratory, or koubbé. This ruin is called *jumjuma* (Calvary) and gives its name to a village a little to the left of it. To this succeeds the first grand mass of ruins, which is one thousand one hundred yards in length, and

eight hundred in greatest breadth, its figure nearly resembling that of a quadrant: its height is irregular, but the most elevated part may be about fifty or sixty feet above the level of the plain, and it has been dug into for the purpose of procuring bricks. Just below the highest part of it, is a small dome in an oblong inclosure, which it is pretended contains the body of a son of Ali, named Amran, together with those of seven of his companions, all slain at the battle of Heliah. Unfortunately for the credit of the tradition, however, it is proved on better authority to be a fraud, not uncommon in these parts, Ali having had no son of this description. From the most remarkable object on it I shall distinguish this mound by the name of Amran.

On the north is a valley of five hundred and fifty yards in length, the area of which is covered with tussocks of rank grass, and crossed by a line of ruins of very little elevation. To this succeeds the second grand heap of ruins, the shape of which is nearly a square, of seven hundred yards length and breadth, and its southwest angle is connected with the northwest angle of the mounds of Amran, by a ridge of considerable height and nearly one hundred yards in breadth. This is the place where Beauchamp made his observations, and it is certainly the most interesting part of the ruins of Babylon: every vestige discoverable in it, declares it to have been composed of buildings far superiour to all the rest which have left traces in the eastern quarter: the bricks are of the finest description; and notwithstanding this is the grand storehouse of them, and that the greatest supplies have been and are now constantly drawn from it, they appear still to be abundant. But the operation of extracting the bricks has caused great confusion, and contributed much to increase the difficulty of decyphering the original design of this mound, as in search of them the workmen pierce into it in every direction, hollowing out deep ravines and pits, and throwing up the rubbish in heaps on the surface. In some instances they have bored into the solid mass, forming winding caverns and subterranean passages, which, from their being left without adequate support, frequently bury the workmen in rubbish. In all these excavations, walls of burnt brick laid in lime mortar of a very good quality are seen; and in addition to the substances generally strewed on the surfaces of all these mounds, we here find fragments of alabaster vessels, fine earthen ware, marble,

and great quantities of varnished tile, the glazing and colouring of which are surprisingly fresh. In a hollow near the southern part, I found a sepulchral urn of earthen ware, which had been broken in digging, and near it lay some human bones which pulverized with the touch.

To be more particular in my description of this mound, not more than two hundred yards from its northern extremity is a ravine, hollowed out by those who dig for bricks, in length near a hundred yards, and thirty feet wide by forty or fifty deep. On one side of it a few yards of wall remain standing, the face of which is very clean and perfect, and it appears to have been the front of some building. The opposite side is so confused a mass of rubbish, that it should seem the ravine had been worked through a solid building. Under the foundations at the southern end an opening is made, which discovers a subterranean passage, floored and walled with large bricks laid in bitumen, and covered over with pieces of sandstone, a yard thick and several yards long, on which the whole being so great as to have given a considerable degree of obliquity to the side walls of the passage. It is half full of blackish water (probably rainwater impregnated with nitre, in filtering through the ruins which are very productive of it) and the workmen say that some way on it is high enough for a horseman to pass upright; as much as I saw of it, it was near seven feet in height, and its course to the south.

A little to the west of the ravine is the next remarkable object, called by the natives the Kasr, or Palace, by which appellation I shall designate the whole mass. It is a very remarkable ruin, which being uncovered and in part detached from the rubbish, is visible from a considerable distance, but so surprisingly fresh in its appearance, that it was only after a minute inspection, I was satisfied of its being in reality a Babylonian remain. It consists of several walls and piers (which face the cardinal points) eight feet in thickness, in some places ornamented with niches, and in others strengthened by pilasters and buttresses, built of fine burnt brick, (still perfectly clean and sharp,) laid in lime cement of such tenacity, that those whose business it is, have given up working it, on account of the extreme difficulty of extracting them whole. The tops of these walls are broken, and may have been much higher. On the outside they have been cleared in some places nearly to the

foundations, but the internal spaces occupied by them are yet filled with rubbish in some parts almost to their summit. One part of the wall has been split into three parts and overthrown as if by an earthquake; some detached walls of the same kind, standing at different distances, show what remains, to have been only a small part of the original fabrick; indeed, it appears that the passage in the ravine, together with the wall which crosses its upper end, were connected with it. There are some hollows underneath, in which several persons have lost their lives; so that no one will venture into them, and their entrances have now become choked with rubbish. Near this ruin is a heap of rubbish, the sides of which are curiously streaked by the alternation of its materials, the chief part of which, it is probable, was unburnt brick, of which I found a small quantity in the neighbourhood, but no reeds were discoverable in the interstices. There are two paths made near this ruin by the workmen who carry down their bricks to the river side, whence they are transported by boats to Hellah: and a little to the northeast of it is the famous tree which the natives call *Athebé*, and maintain to have been flourishing in ancient Babylon, from the destruction of which they say, God purposely preserved it that it might afford Ali a convenient place to tie up his horse after the battle of Hellah! It stands on a kind of ridge, and nothing more than one side of its trunk remains (by which it appears to have been of considerable girth;) yet the branches at the top are perfectly verdant, and gently waving in the wind produce a melancholy rustling sound. It is an evergreen something resembling the *lignumvitae*, and of a kind I believe not common in this part of the country, though I am told there is a tree of the same description at Bassora.

All the people of the country assert, that it is extremely dangerous to approach this mound after nightfall, on account of the multitude of evil spirits by which it is haunted.

A mile to the north of the Kasr, or full five miles distant from Hellah, and nine hundred and fifty yards from the river-bank, is the last ruin of this series, which has been described by Pietro Della Valle, who determines it to have been the tower of Belus, an opinion adopted by Rennel. The natives call it Mukalibé, (or according to the vulgar Arab pronunciation of these parts, Mujelibè,) meaning *overturned;* they sometimes also apply this term to the

mounds of the Kasr. It is of an oblong shape, irregular in its height and the measurement of its sides, which face the cardinal points; the northern side being two hundred yards in length, the southern two hundred and nineteen, the eastern one hundred and eighty-two, and the western one hundred and thirty-six: the elevation of the east or highest angle, one hundred and forty-one feet. The western face, which is the least elevated, is the most interesting on account of the appearance of building it presents. Near the summit of it appears a low wall, with interruptions, built of unburnt bricks, mixed up with chopped straw or reeds, and cemented with clay mortar of great thickness, having between every layer a layer of reeds; and on the north side are also some vestiges of a similar construction. The south west argle is crowned by something like a turret or lantern: the other angles are in a less perfect state, but may originally have been ornamented in the same manner. The western face is lowest and easiest of ascent, the northern the most difficult. All are worn into furrows by the weather; and in some places where several channels of rain have united together, these furrows are of great depth, penetrate a considerable way into the mound. The summit is covered with heaps of rubbish, in digging into some of which, layers of broken burnt brick cemented with mortar are discovered, and whole bricks with inscriptions on them are here and there found: the whole is covered with innumerable fragments of pottery, brick, bitumen, pebbles, vitrified brick or scoria, and even shells, bits of glass, and mother of pearl. On asking a Turk how he imagined these latter substances were brought there, he replied without the least hesitation, 'By the Deluge.' There are many dens of wild beasts in various parts, in one of which I found the bones of sheep and other animals, and perceived a strong smell like that of a lion. I also found quantities of porcupine's quills, and in most of the cavities are numbers of bats and owls. Here I first heard the oriental account of satyrs. I had always imagined the belief of their existence was confined to the mythology of the west: but a Choadar, who was with me when I examined this ruin, mentioned by accident, that in this desert an animal is found, resembling a man from the head to the waist, but having the thighs and legs of a sheep or goat; he said also that the Arabs hunt it with dogs, and eat the lower parts, abstaining from the upper,

on account of their resemblance to those of the human species. "But wild beasts of the desert shall lie there, and their houses shall be full of doleful creatures: and owls shall dwell there, and satyrs shall dance there." Isaiah xiii. 21. I with difficulty refrain from transcribing the whole of this most spirited chapter. The Hebrew word, which we translate *satyrs*, is שעירים, literally "the hairy ones," a signification which has been preserved in the vulgate. In Lev. xvii. 9. the word is used for "devils, evil spirits." The present Jews understand it in this place as synonymous with שדים, or demons. I know not why we introduced the word *satyrs*,—probably on the authority of Aben Ezra, or some other commentator; but we should have been cautious how we made the prophet accountable in a manner for a fabulous being. Since the above was written, I find that the belief of the existence of satyrs is by no means rare in this country. The Arabs call them Sied Assad, and say that they abound in some woody places near Semara, on the Euphrates.

But although there are no ruins in the immediate vicinity of the river, by far the most stupendous and surprising mass of all the remains of Babylon, is situated in this desert, about six miles to the south-west of Hellah. It is called by the Arabs *Birs Nemroud*, by the Jews Nebuchadnezzar's prison, and has been described both by Pere Emanuel, and Niebuhr (who was prevented from inspecting it closely by fear of the Arabs,) but I believe it has not been noticed by any other traveller.

The Birs Nemroud is a mound of an oblong figure, the total circumference of which is seven hundred and sixty two yards. At the eastern side it is cloven by a deep furrow, and is not more than fifty or sixty feet high; but at the western it rises in a conical figure to the elevation of one hundred and ninety-eight feet, and on its summit is a solid pile of brick, thirty-seven feet high by twenty-eight in breadth, diminishing in thickness to the top, which is broken and irregular, and rent by a large fissure extending through a third of its height. It is perforated in small square holes disposed in rhomboids. The fine burnt bricks of which it is built, have inscriptions on them; and so admirable is the cement, which appears to be lime mortar, that though the layers are so close together that it is difficult to discern what substance is between them, it is nearly impossible to

extract one of the bricks whole. The other parts of the summit of this hill are occupied by immense fragments of brick work of no determinate figure, tumbled together, and converted into solid vitrified masses, as if they had undergone the action of the fiercest fire, or been blown up with gunpowder, the layers of the bricks being perfectly discernible—a curious fact, and one for which I am incapable of accounting. These, incredible as it may seem, are actually the ruins spoken of by Pere Emanuel, who takes no sort of notice of the prodigious mound on which they are elevated.

It is almost needless to observe, that the whole of this mound is itself a ruin, channelled by the weather, and strewed with the usual fragments, and with pieces of blackstone, sandstone, and marble. In the eastern parts, layers of unburnt bricks are plainly to be seen, but no reeds were discernible in any part: possibly the absence of them here, when they are so generally seen under similar circumstances, may be an argument of the superiour antiquity of the ruin. In the north side may be seen traces of building exactly similar to the brick pile. At the foot of the mound a step may be traced, scarcely elevated above the plain, exceeding in extent, by several feet each way, the true or measured base; and there is a quadrangular inclosure round the whole, as at the Mujelibè, but much more perfect, and of greater dimensions. At a trifling distance from the Birs, and parallel with its eastern face, is a mound not inferiour to the Kasr in elevation, but much longer than it is broad. On the top of it are two Koubbes or oratories, one called Makam Ibrahim Khalil, and said to be the place where Ibrahim was thrown into the fire by order of Nemroud, who surveyed the scene from the Birs; the other which is in ruins, Makam Sakel Zeman; but to what part of Mehdy's life it relates, I am ignorant. In the oratories I searched in vain for the inscriptions mentioned by Niebuhr: near that of Ibrahim Khalil is a small excavation into the mound, which merits no attention; but the mound itself is curious from its position, and correspondence with others, as I shall in the sequel have occasion to remark.

Round the Birs are traces of ruins to a considerable extent. To the north is the canal which supplies Mesjid Ali with water, which was dug at the expense of the Nuwaub Shujahed Doulah, and called after his country Hindia. We

were informed that from the summit of the Birs, in a clear morning, the gilt dome of Mesjid Ali may be seen.

The most extraordinary building within the city, was the tower, pyramid, or sepulchre of Belus, the base of which, Strabo says, was a square of a stadium each side, and it was a stadium in height. It has been generally considered that Herodotus has given an extravagant account of its dimensions. He says that the first platform, or largest and lowest of the eight towers of which it was composed, was σταδιου και το μηκος και το ευρος, which has been rendered "a stadium in height and breadth; which, supposing the seven other towers to have borne some proportion to it, may be clearly pronounced an absurdity: but μηκος also signifies length, space, and prolixity; in this signification it combines better with ευρος, as length and breadth is a more usual phrase than height and breadth, and the passage then would mean no more than that the base was the square of a stadium.

An additional interest attaches itself to the sepulchre of Belus, from the probability of its identity with the tower which the descendants of Noah, with Belus at their head, constructed in the plain of Shinaar, the completion of which was prevented in so remarkable a manner. I am strongly inclined to differ with the sense in which Genesis ii. 4. is commonly understood. I think too much importance has been attached to the words "*may reach unto Heaven,*" which are not in the original, whose words are ודראשר בשמים, "*and its top to the skies,*" by a metaphor common to all ages and languages, i. e. with a very elevated and conspicuous summit. This is certainly a more rational interpretation, than supposing a people in their senses, even at that early period, would undertake to scale heaven by means of a building of their own construction.

A careful examiner will find as great a difficulty in discovering the tower of Belus, as in identifying any other part of the ruins. Taking for granted the site of Babylon to be in the vicinity of Hellah, his choice will be divided between two objects, the Mujelibè and the Birs Nemroud. I shall briefly notice the arguments in favour of each, with the difficulties and objections that may be advanced, first giving a comparative statement of their dimensions with those of the original tower.

	English Feet.
Total circumference, or sum of the four sides of the Birs,	2286
Ditto of the Mujelibè,	2211
Ditto of the tower of Belus, taking 500 feet for the stadium,	2000

By this it appears that the measurement both of the Birs and the Mujelibè agrees as nearly as possible with that of the tower of Belus, considering our ignorance of the exact proportion of the stadium, and the enlargement which the base must have undergone by the crumbling of the materials. The variations in the form of the Mujelibè from a perfect square, are not more than the accidents of time will account for; and the reader will best judge from my description, whether the summit and external appearance of this ruin corresponds in any way with the accounts of the tower.

The only building which can dispute the palm with the Mujelibè is the Birs Nemroud, previous to visiting which I had not the slightest idea of the possibility of its being the tower of Belus; indeed its situation was a strong argument against such a supposition; but the moment I had examined it I could not help exclaiming, "Had this been on the other side of the river, and nearer the great mass of ruins, no one could doubt of its being the remains of the tower."

Instead of being disappointed at the difficulty of ascertaining any part of the original plan of Babylon, from its present remains, we ought rather to be astonished at the grandeur of that city, which has left such traces, when we consider that it was nearly a heap of ruins two thousand years ago; that immense cities have been built out of its materials, which still appear to be inexhaustible; and that the capital of the Abassides, which we know to have been one of the most extensive and magnificent cities of comparatively modern times, has left but a few confused vestiges which are scarcely elevated above the level of the desert, and which in a few years the most enquiring eye will be unable to discover.

SONG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW.

Sir,

The following Song, fraught with national sentiments and feeling, was inspired by the welcome return of peace. We trust it possesses such intrinsick merit, that its spirit has not evaporated in the course of a few months. We hope it may be as grateful to your readers generally, as it has been to the circle of the author's friends. By giving it a place in your Journal you will greatly oblige,

Yours, &c. C.

Let hymns of thanksgiving to Heaven arise,
For the Demons of war cease to mutter their thunder,
The sword in its scabbard now harmlessly lies,
No more doom'd to part ties of friendship asunder;
The captive, in vain,
No more clanks his chain,
But flies to his country and kindred again;
Then huzza! let our banners float proudly unfurl'd,
Lo! the full orb of Peace now illumines the world.

No more shall the parent lament for his child,
The eye of the orphan shall brighten with pleasure,
For friendship and love in our vallies have smil'd,
And plenty luxuriant diffuses her treasure.
Fair Commerce shall leap
From oblivion's sleep,
And spreading her pinions shall fly on the deep.
Then huzza, &c.
For, &c.

While thus in thanksgiving our tongues we employ,
Let us think of the heroes with heart-felt emotion,
Who fell in defence of the rights we enjoy,
And whose life-blood now stains the dark wave of the ocean.
Columbia, thy pride,
Was torn from thy side,
When shrouded in glory they fearlessly died;
For ages the laurel shall flourish and bloom,
As it clings to the cypress, that waves o'er their tomb.

Columbia, arise, swell the paean again !
May the spirit of party take wing from thy borders,
May discord subside, and our land shall remain,
Undefac'd, unpolluted by hostile marauders !
Round Liberty's tree
United we'll be,
And show to mankind we're resolv'd to be free.
Then huzza ! let our banners float proudly unfurl'd,
Lo ! the full orb of Peace now illumines the world.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

Sir,

I enclose an exquisite little Poem, by Sadolet, on the Statue of Laocoon. It has been rarely published, and its insertion in your Journal may gratify that taste for the fine arts, which seems to be dawning among us. If you think that the translation accompanying it will give pleasure to those of your readers, who cannot enjoy the original, it is at your service.

JACOBI SADOLETI CARMEN DE STATUA LAOCOONTIS.

Ecce alto terræ e cumulo, ingentisque ruinæ
Visceribus, iterum *reducem** longinqua reduxit
Laocoönta dies : aulis regalibus olim
Qui stetit, atque tuos ornabat, Tite, penates.
Divinæ simulachrum artis, nec docta vetustas
Nobilius spectabat opus ; nunc celsa revisit
Exemptum tenebris redivivæ mænia Romæ.
Quid primum summumve loquar ? miserumne parentem
Et prolem geminam ? an sinuatos flexibus angues
Terribili aspectu ? caudasque irasque draconum,
Vulneraque, et veros, saxo moriente, dolores ?
Horret ad hæc animus, mutaque ab imagine pulsat
Pectora, non parvo pietas commixta tremori.
Prolixum bini spiris glomerantur in orbem
Ardentes colubri, et sinuosis orbibus errant,
Ternaque multiplici constringunt corpora nexu.

* *reducem* : better perhaps *in lucem*.

Vix oculi sufferre valent crudele tuendo
Exitium, casusque feros : micat alter, et ipsum
Laocoönta petit, totumque infraque supraque
Implicat, et rabido tandem ferit ilia morsu.
Connexum refugit corpus, torquentia sese
Membra, latusque retro sinuatum a vulnere cernas.
Ille dolore acri, et laniatu impulsus acerbo,
Dat gemitum ingentem, crudosque evellere dentes
Connixus, lævam impatiens ad terga chelydri
Objicit : intendunt nervi, collectaque ab omni
Corpore vis frustra summis conatibus instat.
Ferre nequit rabiem, et de vulnere murmur anhelum est.
At Serpens lapsu crebro redeunte subintrat
Lubricus, intortoque ligat genua infima nodo.
Absistunt suræ, spirisque prementibus arctum
Crus tumet, obsepto turgent vitalia pulsu,
Liventesque atro distenduut sanguine venas.
Nec minus in natos eadem vis effera sævit
Implexuque angit rapido, miserandaque membra
Dilacerat : jamque alterius depasta cruentum
Pectus, suprema genitorem voce cientis,
Circumjectu orbis, validoque volumine fulcit.
Alter adhuc nullo violatus corpore morsu,
Dum parat adducta caudam divellere planta
Horret ad aspectum miseri patris, haeret in illo,
Et jamjam ingentes fletus, lachrymasque cadentes
Anceps in dubio retinet timor. Ergo perenni,
Qui tantum statuistis opus, jam laude nitentes,
Artifices magni (quamquam et melioribus actis
Quæritur æternum nomen, multoque licebat
Clarius ingenium venturæ tradere famæ)
Attamen, ad laudem quæcumque oblata facultas
Egregium hanc rapere, et summa ad vestigia niti.
Vos rigidum lapidem vivis animare figuris
Eximii, et vivos spiranti in marmore sensus
Inserere ; aspicimus motumque iramque doloremque
Et pene audimus gemitus : vos extulit olim
* Clara Rhodos, vestræ jacuerunt artis honores

* Pliny, in lib. 36. Sect. 4, observes, that when several artists unite to form a single statue, the trouble of repeating all their names prevents the celebrity of any, and adds, " Sicut in Laocoonte, qui est in Titi Imperatoris domo, opus omnibus et

Tempore ab immenso, quos rursum in luce secunda
Roma videt, celebratque frequens : operisque vestusti
Gratia parta recens. Quanto præstantius ergo est
Ingenio, aut quovis extendere fata labore,
Quam fastus et opes et inanem extendere luxum.

TRANSLATION.

Lo, rising from the bosom of the tomb,
Dragged from the ruins of devoted Rome,
Laocoön lives, who once adorn'd the hearth,
Whence the good Titus rul'd and bless'd the earth.
Model of Art—the choicest genius gave
To swell Rome's glory, or to deck her grave.
What tongue the wonders of the work can tell,
The serpents, vast, voluminous and fell,
Their monstrous size, their giant strength display,
Their rage, their triumph, as they crush their prey,
The fathers' sufferings, the childrens' cries,
And all the dying marble's agonies ?
Shock'd by the sight, in vain we chide the tear,
Yet while we melt in pity, start for fear.
Scarce can our eyes the cruel scene sustain,
Support their struggles, or endure their pain.
Look ! how these ministers of wrath divine
In iron volumes round their victims twine,
See this in fury to the father glide,
Curl round his arms, and rend his bleeding side.
Observe his body bending from the foe,
Writhing and shrinking to avoid the blow,
That piteous look to heaven despairing thrown,
And the keen anguish of that harrowing groan,
Hasting to tear the reeking fangs away,
He grasps the monster's throat with frantick sway,
Their utmost force his nerves convulsive strain,
Struggling with all their strength—but all in vain.
The other Serpent in relentless folds,
Fixed to the spot, the victim prophet holds ;

picturae et statuariæ artis præponendum. Ex uno lapide eum et liberos, draconumque mirabiles nexus de consilii sententia fecere summi artifices *Agesander* et Polydorus et Athenodorus, Rhodii."

No hope of flight; the sinewy body winds
About each knee, and tight and tighter binds
Its stubborn knots; the obstructed pulse beats high,
Distends the veins, and swells the strictured thigh.
See the same foe the younger boy invest,
Crush his fair frame, and feed upon his breast.
The folds immense his helpless form sustain,
As fainting in excruciating pain,
He feebly lifts a supplicating eye,
And calls his father, with the last sad sigh.
Here, to the elder the long train extends,
And its last circle round his ankle bends;
Stooping, as if to force the curl away,
He views the strife in motionless dismay;
What anguish on each feature is impress'd,
How his fond eyes upon his father rest,
Hang on *his* agony, in breathless fear,
While doubt and horrour check the bursting tear.
Hail Artists, hail!—although a nobler name
Might be transmitted on the rolls of fame,
Gained by the labours of the lofty mind
To bless, improve, or liberate mankind;
Not worthless still the praise to you allowed,
Well to have us'd the talent heaven bestowed,
By the nice touch of the creative steel,
To make the marble breathe, and act, and feel.
We see them die, and bursting from the stone
We almost hear the agonizing groan.
Your birth illustrious Rhodes shall love to boast:
Though to the gaze of admiration lost,
The matchless monument for ages lay
Hid in the ruins from the light of day,
Dragg'd forth at length, again your glory lives,
And the proud mistress of the world survives.
How nobler far, than wealth, and pomp, and power,
The frequent effort of the toilsome hour,
By genius or by skill, a name to save
Defying fate, triumphant o'er the grave.

THE NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW.

Christian Gottlob Heyne.—Biographisch dargestellt von. Arn. Herm. Lud. Heeren. Gottingen, bey Johann Frederich Rower. 1813 *S.* 522. 12*mo.*
The Life of Christian Gottlob Heyne, by A. H. L. *Heeren, Gottingen.* 1813. *pp.* 522, 12*mo.*

Among the German literati of the 18th century, Heyne may perhaps be allowed to have stood first. Without having possessed a genius of the first order, his taste was so good, his judgment so correct, and his learning so great, as to make his critical works at once a safe, pleasant, and competent guide into ancient literature—It is well observed by the author of the work before us, that he was the first in Germany, perhaps the first in Europe, who presented the world with an edition of a classick conceived in a true taste. Without having himself gone as far in this respect as is to be wished, he seems to have been the first to feel, that the accumulation of parallel passages from a thousand authors, the tedious discussion of idle questions, and the unprofitable solution of small doubts, does not constitute the province of one who would illustrate an Ancient writer. He knew better than his predecessors, how to distinguish between displaying knowledge himself, and aiding the reader to acquire it; and in most of his editions has left laudable specimens of his acquaintance with that last perfection, the 'Art to blot.' Though it is as an editor of the Classicks, that Heyne is principally known in foreign lands, his researches into history and antiquities were scarcely less extensive, and in the latter of these departments, he stands perhaps second to Winkelman alone.

The work before us contains a survey of his life and character, both in his publick and private capacity, written by his pupil and afterwards his colleague, as Professor of the University at Gottingen. It presents us with a very full account of his labours as Professor and Librarian there. While the connexion of the Biographer with the subject of his narrative, as a son-in-law, gave him access to every source of private information, and afforded him opportuni-

ties, of which he has duly availed himself, to give the reader what—is often so much desired in the account of publick men—an insight into his private, personal, and domestick life. It may easily be imagined that the work must be highly interesting, especially as it is written in a simple and natural style, and by an Author reputed, for his other historical works, among the first of the German writers.—The foreigner will perhaps think that a little more brevity might have been studied, without loss of interest, but will be willing to apply to this defect the apology for the work itself contained in the beautiful words of the motto '*Liber hic, ho-*
'*nori soceri mei destinatus, professione pietatis aut laud-*
'*atus erit aut excusatus.*'—

Of the earliest years of his life, Heyne himself left a written account; this is inserted entire by Mr. Heeren, and might almost serve for a manual of encouragement to those, who are destined, in like manner, to force their way to eminence, against the pressure of external circumstances. We are sure the following extracts must please the reader. They begin the little account written by Heyne himself.—'My good father, George Heyne, was born in the 'principality of Glogau, in Silesia, at a little place called 'Gravenschutz. His youth was cast upon the times, when 'the persecutions of the Protestants by the Catholicks com-'menced; and his family, who had lived in an humble, but 'independent condition, found their peace destroyed by 'this spirit of Proselytism. Some went over to the Romish 'Church: but my father left his home, and endeavoured to 'support himself by the labour of his hands in Saxony. '"What doth it profit a man that he gain the whole world, 'and lose his own Soul"—was the reflection, which the expe-'rience of his youth had stamped the deepest upon his mind. 'But no fortunate occurrence happened to aid his efforts, and 'a series of disasters kept him below the measure of medi-'ocrity. His age was thus surrendered as a prey to po-'verty, and her handmaids dejection and despair.—I was 'born and brought up in the greatest poverty. Want was 'my earliest playmate, and my first impressions were made 'by the tears of my Mother, when she had no bread for her 'children. How often have I seen her on Saturday, with 'swollen eyes, and wringing her hands, when she returned 'without having found a purchase for the fruits of her hus-'band's daily and almost nightly labour, through the week.

'Sometimes a new attempt would be made through my sis-
'ter or myself, and we must take the same goods to the
'trader, to see if we could sell them. There is in these
'parts a sort of trader, so called, who buys the linen of the
'poor manufacturers, at the lowest price, that they may
'sell it again at the highest. How often have I seen one
'of these little tyrants, with the haughtiness of a Satrap, re-
'turn the goods offered him, or insist upon abating a
'penny of the honest price. Want would force the poor
'manufacturer to sell the sweat of his brow, a penny or
'two less, and to make up the deficiency by starving. It
'was sights like these, that first kindled my sensibility, and
'instead of being dazzled by the wealth of those, who sub-
'sisted upon morsels wrested from hundreds of the poor, I
'regarded them only with indignation. The first time I
'heard in school of slaying a tyrant, I felt the most lively
'wish to be a Brutus myself, to those oppressors of the
'poor, who had so often left those whom I loved, to suffer
'by want.—My good parents did what they could, and
'allowed me to attend a school for children in the suburbs.
'I had the credit of understanding quick, and of a desire to
'learn.—*As early as my tenth year, I undertook to instruct*
'*one of my neighbour's children, a girl, in reading and*
'*writing, for the sake of earning enough to pay my own*
'*schooling!* As reading and writing were the extent to
'which I could go in school, I began to think of a private
'hour for Latin. But a Guter Groschen* a week was de-
'manded for this: and that my parents could not afford.
'This grief I bore a long time. I had a Godfather, a ba-
'ker in good circumstances, my mother's half brother. I
'was sent to him one Saturday, to fetch bread. I entered
'with my eyes wet, into the house, and found my God-
'father there. He asked me why I had been weeping,
'and I tried to answer; but burst into a flood of tears, and
'could scarce explain the cause of my trouble. My mag-
'nanimous Godfather promised to supply the weekly Gros-
'chen; only upon the condition, that I should repeat to him
'every Sunday the passage in the Gospels, which had been
'the week's task. This had the good effect, that it improved
'my memory, and brought me to deliver myself with self-
'possession. Wild with joy, I ran away with my bread;

* The twenty-fourth part of the Riechs-Thaler—about three Cents.

'throwing it up in the air as I went, and leaping up myself, 'barefooted, as I was, for joy. But my bread happened to fall 'into the gutter, and this brought me in some measure to 'my senses. My mother rejoiced at the good news, but 'my father was less satisfied. At this school I passed two 'years, till my master discovered, what I had some time be-'fore, that I could learn no more of him."—p. 6—10.

The account of his removal to a higher school, and of various mortifications and difficulties which attended him there, is given in the same style—Without books, or the means of purchasing them, he was obliged daily to borrow those of his school-fellows, and transcribe the task before he could study it: His patron, another Godfather, who had consented to pay his quarter bills at the school, instead of extending his generosity to the supply of books, thought fit to exercise it in the way of private instruction himself, in the making of Latin verses. 'At every festival, says 'Heyne, and particularly St. Sebastian's day, for whom he 'was named, I was called upon for an occasional ode, not of 'twenty lines; but a hundred at least, and in all sorts of 'metres; and I was obliged to labour upon subjects of 'every sort, such as man never thought of putting into 'verse.'—The instruction, which he received in school, was no better, and he says he should have sunk into total stupidity, if he had not been aroused by an anagram.

'We had our school examinations, at which the Superin-'tendant was present. This man, Dr. Theodore Kruger, a 'learned Theologian for his day, interrupted the rector, as he 'was pursuing the examination, with the question "which of 'the boys can tell the anagram of Austria (avstria.") The 'idea was suggested by the first Silesian war, [in which the 'Saxons were opposed to the Austrians] having just broken 'out, and a good anagram had been made upon it in some 'of the magazines.—No body knew what an anagram was, 'the rector himself was at a non-plus. As no one answer-'ed, the rector began with a long description of an anagram, 'when I jumped up and cried out *Vastari* [to be wasted.] 'This was different from the one which had been given 'in the magazines, which encreased the Superintendant's 'surprise, at receiving his answer from a little boy in the 'second form. He loaded me with praise, though he 'brought all my schoolfellows about my ears, by abusing 'them for being outdone by an *Infimus*."—p. 15—18.

At this school, Heyne passed seven years, and at the age of nineteen left home, without books, and with two gilders [about a dollar] in his pocket, for the university at Leipsick. His godfather had promised to assist him with pecuniary supplies; but they were so small and irregular, as to leave him often at the mercy of chance, for his daily bread. Without the means of paying the fees for the private lectures, he was able to avail himself of but few of the literary means of the university, and lived without method, or comfort; in want, and despair.—About the end of the first year, he made an acquaintance with one of the professors, who used to encourage his visits, and lend him books. By his advice, he commenced the reading the Classicks in order, as Scaliger did, and began with Herodotus. He pursued it, as he was able from time to time to borrow the books, and with such profligacy of application, as to sleep but two nights in the week. The consequence was a fever, from which he recovered with difficulty. He attended at this time some of the lectures of Ernesti, to whom, both then and afterwards, he was indebted for valuable services.

Upon the death of Lacoste, a preacher of the Reformed French Church, at Leipsick, Heyne expressed his respect for the memory of his friend, in a Latin elegy. The church hearing of it, and cherishing also the strongest attachment to the memory of their deceased pastor, requested of Heyne the copy of his elegy, and published it, in a splendid edition. This work fell into the hands of Count Bruhl, the prime minister of the Elector of Saxony, and represented as a man fond of every thing of pomp and show. His admiration of the typographical merit of the elegy extended itself to the composition; and with the highest praise of the author, he expressed the wish to have him in his service. This was communicated to Heyne, and his fortune thought to be made. By the advice of all his friends, he hastened to Dresden, was introduced to count Bruhl, was graciously received, and dismissed with promises—that were never fulfilled.—Thus he was left without friends, without money, and without credit, to support himself in Dresden. 'His want was now extreme. Peas in the pod, which he had cooked as he could collect them, were often his only subsistence. He had no dwelling place. A candidate Soontag, with whom he was ac-

quainted, had compassion on him, and took him into his chamber. But he was without a bed. Nothing was left him, but to sleep on the floor with books for his pillows.' After much solicitation, he procured the place of copyist in the Elector's library, with a salary of one hundred thalers [about seventy-five dollars] a year. Here his literary labours began, and were resorted to as a means of support. His first work was a translation of a French Romance, Le Soldat Parvenu, for which he received twenty thalers.—His next attempt was more of an earnest of the character of his future labours, a translation of Charito's Chairea and Callirhoe—a few years before edited for the first time by Dorville. Both these works were published without his name. In 1755 appeared his first edition of Tibullus, which, however eclipsed by his subsequent labours upon this, his favourite poet, was received with approbation by the learned world. His edition of Epictetus—suggested by a MS. of that author in the electoral library, which he collated for the occasion, followed in a year, which, says his biographer, besides the proofs it gave of his proficiency in Greek, rendered him a far greater service, in the support he derived from its Stoick philosophy, in the trials to which he was soon exposed.

'About this time Heyne made an acquaintance in the electoral library, the importance of which he did not then know. There came often to the library, a man entirely unknown, whose visits were not particularly acceptable to the librarians, as he gave them so much to do. He seemed to be insatiable in reading, and the books he asked for were so many, that he was scarcely received with kindness. It was John Winkelman. Thinking already of his journey to Italy, he was preparing himself for it. Thus the two men became acquainted with each other, who, both in poverty and want, little imagined that in a few years they were to be the instructers of polite Europe, the pride and ornament of theirnation.'

The troubles of the seven years war soon after commenced. As far as they are connected with his own history, they are related in an account given by Heyne himself of his first marriage, and which is inserted entire by Mr. Heeren. We must confine ourselves to a single extract—'On the '18th of July began the bombardment of Dresden by the 'Prussians. Several nights I passed in company with

'others in a cellar, and the days in my apartment; so that I 'heard the shot from the battery, as it passed through the 'streets, whizzing by my windows. Such an indifference to 'life possessed me, that on the last day, having gone early 'in the morning to bed, I slept quietly till noon, without 'being disturbed by the fearful explosion of bombs and 'hand-grenades. When I awoke, I hurried on my clothes, 'and running down the stairs, found the house deserted. I 'returned to my chamber, to consider what I should do, at 'least where I should send my trunk; when a bomb fell with 'alarming noise into the garden of the house. It did not 'burst, but all about it was shattered with the concussion. 'Thinking, that where one bomb had fell, others might 'follow, I descended again the stairs—found the door lock-'ed—ran here and there about the house—till I made my 'escape at last, by one of the windows into the street. 'Deserted as the lane was, in which I had lived, the prin-'cipal streets were thronged with fugitives. With balls 'striking round, I ran through the Castle street, over the 'Elbe bridge, to the new city which the Prussians had 'been forced to evacuate. Glad to lay my head upon a 'stone in a house, I passed one part of the night there: in 'the other part I witnessed the dreadful spectacle of flying 'bombs and a burning city. At break of day, a gate was 'opened by the Austrian guard to allow the fugitives to 'escape. The overbearing officer, who commanded this 'guard, saluted us as Lutheran dogs, and gave each as he 'passed a blow. At length I escaped; but whither? 'began to occupy my mind. In the hurry, in which I had 'left Dresden, I had taken nothing; not even a guter 'groschen.—Only on the way, I saw the cellar open, where 'I had been accustomed to spend the night, and a fur coat 'there. In this I wrapped myself, and travelled from the 'new city in a burning day, over the sand and heath, and 'took the way to Ansdorf, where Therese (afterwards his 'wife) was with her friend, who was making a visit to her 'mother-in-law. Beneath a blazing sun, and through a 'country desolate and deserted, I travelled twenty miles to 'Bischofswerda, where I slept in a teamsters' tavern. At 'midnight arrived a postillion with return horses, and I 'begged him to let me mount one. Thus I rode till the 'way parted; and all day long heard the shots from poor 'Dresden echoed along the mountains. By the first occa-

'sion, I returned to Dresden. There was a possibility 'that my house had escaped. With a heavy heart I look-'ed onward to the city—ran to the spot where my dwel-'ling stood, and found—a heap of ashes. Next to my 'dwelling, I was concerned for the library. It was empty. 'One accident after another had happened to it. At the 'beginning of the war the most valuable works, the ancient 'impressions, with the noble collection of copperplates, were 'deposited in a vault; a part of the rest was sent forward to 'Hamburg as the pledge of a loan. Some boxes of these 'were lost in the Elbe. Some were opened at the Prussian 'custom houses, and the books dispersed. Through the 'arch where the books were deposited, passed certain con-'duits, to the water works. When Dresden was attacked 'they aimed at this edifice, to destroy the pavilion and 'garden. The conduits were hereby injured, and when 'the books, after a long time, came to be again examined, 'they were found to be ruined by dampness. Finally a 'small portion of books had been carried to a massy edi-'fice on the [blank in the original.] The first bomb struck 'this building, and the whole was consumed. After my 'return to Dresden a very unpleasant circumstance occur-'red. My colleague in the library, receiving a reproof for 'leaving Dresden before the siege, knew no other way to 'exculpate himself, than to throw the blame of burning 'the library upon me; and I stood for some time in dan-'ger of a legal prosecution.' p. 63. This is the melancholy history of a library of 70,000 volumes.

Disastrous as the war had been in a publick view, it was the present ruin of Heyne's private prospects. All his property and papers, with all the moveables of the person to whom he was shortly after married, were lost in the conflagration of his house. The loss of the Electoral library was the loss of his occupation, and he lived in extreme indigence with his wife, partly upon the favour of his friends, and upon what literary employment he could find in Dresden.

In 1761, died Gesner, professor of Eloquence and librarian at Gottingen. As the place was considered one of great importance, the regency at Hanover, and Munchausen, in particular, the prime minister, employed remarkable circumspection in filling it. Applying to Ernesti as the most competent person to nominate a successor, they were told that there was none in Germany, and that they must have

recourse to Rhunken at Leyden, or Saxe at Utrecht. Rhunken was written to, but refused to leave his adopted country. His letter, in reply, is a remarkable instance of decision and foresight. 'Why do you seek out of Ger-'many, for what Germany itself affords? Why do you 'not appoint, as successor to Gesner, Christian Gottlob 'Heyne, this pupil of Ernesti, this man of excellent genius, 'who has proved his acquaintance with Roman literature, 'in his Tibullus; with Grecian in his Epictetus? He is, in 'my opinion, and in that of Hemsterhusius τα παντα, the only 'man who can make Gesner's place good. In this man, 'believe me, there is a store of genius and learning, 'that will shortly be the admiration of polite Europe.' p. 74. The place, with a salary of 800 Thalers, was accordingly bestowed on Heyne.

It will be readily conceived, that though Heyne had now reached the most regularly active part of his life, the season of what may be called his adventures was now over. His subsequent history is the record of his official duties as professor of eloquence, as librarian, as secretary of the Royal Society of Gottingen, and as editor of the Literary Journal under its superintendance: to say nothing of several other calls of greater or less importance upon his time and attention. The fidelity with which he discharged the duties of such an extent and variety, gives one a high idea of his activity and punctuality; while on surveying the extent of his studies, as displayed in his very numerous and profoundly learned publications, we are at a loss to imagine how he could have spared any time from them. The method and regularity, with which he divided and arranged his avocations, the strict conscientiousness with which he felt their obligation, and the severe punctuality with which he attended to them all, are the secrets of his doing so much and so well. The following picture of the private economy of his study, we extract for the amusement of the reader. 'The number and variety of his occupations required a 'large space, and for a study Heyne made use of the princi-'pal room in his house, with three windows fronting upon 'the street, and one, (in summer his favourite place) upon 'the garden. On one side stood two sets of shelves, with 'the books which he used in his daily studies: the rest 'were in a cabinet on the same side of the room. He had 'in his study from ten to twelve different tables. His lite-

'rary labours were divided among these, so that one or two 'tables were appropriated to each department. In another 'place, he had a little desk, at which he often stood, espe- 'cially to write his letters. In two other cabinets, stood from 'thirty to forty paste-board boxes, about two inches deep, 'and large enough to receive a folio sheet. Each of these 'was labelled; and in these, according to the labels, were 'kept all his papers upon current affairs; letters, according 'to their contents, reviews, &c. On the third side of his 'room, between the windows, stood two presses, one 'devoted to his private affairs, and the other to the 'publick accounts and books, which it was his duty to 'keep. Near the window, by the garden, stood his bed, 'for he always slept in his study: a little press by the stove 'contained his daily apparel, and on the other side an arm 'chair, his place of rest when fatigued with labour, where 'he also slept a little after dinner. At five o'clock in the 'morning he rose: this was his practice to the day of his 'death, and in his younger years he did it earlier. Dress- 'ing himself in a study coat, and after taking a cup of 'coffee, he sat down to his writing table: and was general- 'ly employed in reviews for the Literary Journal till nine. 'At nine in the winter, he took his breakfast in his study, 'meat of some kind, and a glass of wine. Dressing himself 'then, he remained in full dress the rest of the day. But 'in summer he had his first lecture at eight o'clock; these 'were upon Archaeology. The next two hours were devo- 'ted to business, in particular to the affairs of the library. 'At eleven he attended in the philological seminary, and 'remained till twelve. Soon after twelve he took his din- 'ner, and then his family saw him for the first time in the 'day. After dinner he slept in his arm chair for half an 'hour, not longer, as he was obliged to prepare for his lec- 'ture at two o'clock. From three to six he devoted his 'time principally to correspondence; though while he read 'his private lectures on the Greek poets, his usual hour for 'these was from five to six. There were seasons in which 'he spent four hours a day in lecturing. About six o'clock, 'toward the latter part of his life, he met his family again, 'for a quarter of an hour at tea. Till eight o'clock he was 'in his study, and shortly after eight he took his supper, and 'sat, especially if he had a friend, half an hour at table. 'After supper he was at his studies till half past ten, when

'he retired to rest. When, however, he had much to do, 'he sat later, and his light was seen when all else was wrap- 'ped in slumber. He was accessible from morning to 'night to all who wished to speak to him:—what, however, 'was most oppressive to him was to have his time needless- 'ly taken up. His friends and acquaintances knew this, 'and seldom came to see him, except upon occasion of bu- 'siness, and then for no longer than was necessary." p. 328. It is mentioned elsewhere, that he was particularly fond of roses, and in the season of them, would always have some standing in water upon his table.

Some of the greatest services of Heyne to the University, were those which he rendered as librarian. Shortly after his appointment to Gottingen, he succeeded Michaelis as first librarian, and for the rest of his life exerted himself in every way to increase it, and facilitate its use. He found it at fifty thousand volumes, and left it at two hundred thousand, and the MS. Alphabetical Catalogue, in one hundred folio volumes, was undertaken at his instance, and completed in ten years under his superintendance. A pleasant anecdote is related, in reference to the library, in a little journal of a tour made by Mr. and Mrs. Heyne in the year 1788, written by the latter, and inserted by Mr. Heeren in his work. It was before the library had reached the size at which he left it. At dinner, at Colothurn, a little city in Switzerland, 'Heyne had, at his right hand, a young 'Benedictine from Constance, the librarian of his monas- 'tery. He had, I know not how, discovered that he had a 'colleague for his neighbour, and the conversation naturally 'turned upon their respective libraries, the number of vo- 'lumes, &c. The good monk seemed quite convinced, 'that no collection could surpass that, of which he had the 'care. Heyne let him speak on and get animated, till to 'the question how many volumes he had, he answered, 'with a very well contented air, ten thousand. He asked, 'in his turn, how many volumes there were in the Gottingen 'library, and Heyne modestly replied, one hundred and 'thirty thousand. It was too much for the good Benedic- 'tine. So shocked was he at the answer, which he took 'for mere rhodomontade, that he threw down his knife and 'fork, and left the table." p. 355.

Our limits do not admit of our abstracting from this very entertaining volume a more minute account of the labours of

Heyne, as a publick teacher of ancient literature, or in his other capacities of Secretary to the Royal Society, to which he presented yearly at least one memoir, and Editor of the Literary Journal, in which he wrote about eight thousand articles. Of his labours as a critick, our readers are able to form their own opinion. Of his Tibullus and Virgil, his Pindar and his Homer, who does not know the fame? and who that has read them does not know their merit? Tibullus was his favourite among the Latin poets, and he seems to have laboured, *con amore*, upon the three successive editions of his works which he published. He also communicated what further occurred to him, after the last edition, to Mr. since Professor Wunderlich, of Gottingen, who published a new edition. The Tibullus of Heyne has been called the best edited of the Latin Classicks.

'Et qui, says Villers, oserait encore toucher à Virgile, après la dernière édition en 4 vol. qu' a donnée du sien, à Leipsick l'illustre Mr. Heyne, et ou ce grand critique a retouché pour la dernière fois son ouvrage?' No one will feel dissatisfied with the question, who has availed himself of the ample collection of every thing necessary to the illustration of Virgil, which this edition contains, clothed as it is in an eloquent and beautiful latinity, and disposed with admirable discretion and taste.

The edition of Pindar was occasioned by the following circumstance. Being requested by some of the students to read a private course to them upon this difficult author, it was found that the want of manuals would be the first difficulty. He accordingly undertook the task of publishing an edition, of which the Latin version was prepared by Koppe, a young man formed in his school, and afterwards connected with his family. This edition appeared in 1773; and a volume of additamenta followed in 1791, containing a further selection of various readings. In 1798, however, he presented the world with his second edition, containing what may be called a complete Pindarick apparatus. An Epistle of Herman, upon the metres of Pindar is given in the last volume, and the excellent indices were contributed by Fiorillo, now professor in the philosophical faculty at Gottingen. If the preference be given in some respects to the subsequent edition of Boekh, that of Heyne will ever deserve the praise of having been the first, to make Pindar accessible to the generality of scholars.

If the opinion of criticks is as yet undecided, upon all the questions, connected with Heyne's edition of Homer, there is still a praise, and that of the highest kind, which will not be withholden. While the current notes, beneath the text, reduce Homer to the level of every one who is willing to read him, the collections in the subsequent volumes present the student, with all the materials, for a minute familiarity with all that concerns the illustration of the Iliad, in its present state. That these collections are too minute and laborious, and border too much upon the unrelenting erudition of the school, which Heyne elsewhere did so much to supersede, is, perhaps, the only objection that will be made to them. Opinions are yet divided upon the value of the digamma, which is applied throughout in the margin ; but, standing as it does there, it is no disturbance of the ordinary text, and at worst can be regarded only as a superfluity—of the controversy, with respect to the authenticity of Homer, not much has been heard beyond the limits of the European continent. In 1795, Frederic Augustus Wolf, for a short time a pupil of Heyne at Gottingen, then professor at Jena, and now at Berlin, published an edition of Homer, containing a revision of the text, in which he availed himself of Villoison's neat edition of the Venetian MS. with Scholia, but particularly accompanied with prolegomena, in which he called in question the authenticity of the poems, and maintained, that instead of having been written at the period usually assigned, and by Homer, or by any other single person, they were gradually formed, by successive collections, and recensions of separate poems, handed down by tradition, and first committed to writing, in the age of Solon. The first volume of the Prolegomena, containing chiefly the external evidence, is all that has yet appeared.—This edition of Homer, and the prolegomena in particular, was reviewed by Heyne in the Gottingen Literary Journal, and in a manner perhaps it will be thought not quite worthy either of the subject, the author, or the reviewer. The review was short, cursory, and superficial ; and it spoke civilly of the merits of the edition, as an application of Villoison's edition to the criticism of the text. So far from entering at all into the merits of the great question, started in the prolegomena, Heyne remarks, *en passant*, that the author appears to regard the suggestion, that Homer was not the

author of the poems as they stand, as original; but that *he himself had always held this opinion.* He complains also of Mr. Wolf, for not having communicated his design of publishing an edition, and intimates a sort of interference with his own. Not long after he read to the Royal Society at Gottingen, a memoir de antiquâ Homeri lectione indaganda, dijudicanda et restituenda, of which he gave an account in the Literary Journal, and in which he advances quite the same system as Wolf, with the addition that he had *always* held it. As Wolf had attended his lectures upon Homer at Gottingen, he considered the implication to be unavoidable, that he had borrowed his system, or the suggestion of it, from Heyne, and in a series of five letters, written with no small acerbity, upon the occasion, he maintains the originality of his speculations, so far as regarded Heyne; and, by the quotation of passages from the works of the latter, would prove that Heyne, notwithstanding his repeated assertions, could not, and did not, entertain the same or similar views. The literary world has in some degree sanctioned the assertions of Wolf, by setting down Heyne as the leader of an opposite school, though one who should compare the prolegomena of the former, with the abovementioned memoir of the latter, might find it difficult to discover the ground of the distinction. When Heyne's edition of Homer, some years after, appeared, one portion of the republick of letters was arrayed by anticipation against it, and the usual exasperations incident to such controversies, have produced in Germany, a radical, perhaps lasting, division of opinion on the merits of the work. Various circumstances have contributed to prevent the labours of Wolf from finding favour, in England or here. Few understand, and fewer adopt his system. As far as it has been known, it has been associated with the similar system, which has been applied by the German divines of the New School to the Old and New Testament, and of which the rumour has been heard with horrour, in the English and American church. Meantime Heyne's edition of the Iliad has received the title of Optima, and is seldom mentioned but with the regret that his labours had not extended to the Odyssey. He had made collections for an edition of the Odyssey, part of which were communicated, says Mr. Heeren, to one of the learned; in whose hands they will not be lost, and a part, we understand, are deposited in the University Library at Gottingen.

Heyne's private life, till he reached the meridian of his days, was full of troubles. The sketch of his early history, already given, acquaints us with the severity of his fortune, till his appointment to Gottingen; and the death of several of his children, and of his first wife, in the year 1775, were new and successive appeals to his sensibility. From the period, however, of his second marriage, in 1777, with the daughter of the Elder Brander, one of the Hanoverian ministry, and a man of letters, his life seems to have been passed in comparative tranquillity and peace. He received very many invitations to different situations at Cassel, Dresden, Copenhagen, &c. some of which were highly lucrative and honourable, but he refused them all. He had promised to the minister Munchausen, when that singular man was upon his death bed, that he would never leave Gottingen. And at each successive invitation elsewhere, he usually received an accession to his salary. His health, in latter life, was uncommonly good, and his activity continued to the last. In 1803, when he was about the age of 70, he shared with his colleagues in the fear, that was felt for the University, under the administration of the French. It was determined to address the first consul, upon the subject, and to commend the University to his protection. A letter was accordingly written to him, by M. Martens, prorector of the University, and by Heyne its oldest member, and correspondent of the National Institute. The following answer was sent to Heyne.

Paris, le 21 *Prarial, an* XI. *de la Republique Francaise.*

Le Ministre de la Guerre à Mr. Heyne, Membre de l'Université de Goettingue et Associé de L'Institut National de France.

Le Premier Consul, Monsieur, sçait apprecier les services, que l'Universitê de Goettingue a rendue aux lettres et aux arts, et les droits qûelle s'est acquis à la reconoisance des savans. Que le bruit des armes n' interrompe pas vos paisibles et utiles occupations. L'armée Française accordera une protection speciale a vos etablissemens. Son général en a reçu l'ordre, et aura un grand plaisir à l'exécuter. Vous pouvéz en donner l'assurance à tous les membres de votre Université, que le Premier Consul honore d'une grand estime, et particuliérment à Mr. de Martens, son Prorector.

Agreez l'assurance de la considération
la plus distinguee AL. BERTHIER.

The University was accordingly respected, as well at this period, as under the Westphalian usurpation. It will not, perhaps, be numbered among Heyne's greatest rewards, that he was presented by Jerome with the order of the Westphalian Crown. This latter worthy personage, who oppressed for a short time with a vulgar sway a rich and beautiful country, presented to the library at Gottingen the spoils of some of the other universities: particularly some of those of the library at Wolfenbuttel. These, we understand, have been sent back.

Heyne was happy beyond most, who attain like him the age of eighty-three, in not outliving his own reputation and usefulness.—Though not altogether without the warnings of his end, he was able to persevere in his literary labours to the last. The day before his death, he wrote some letters, one of them in Latin, which was found finished, but open upon his table, after his death. He arose as usual at five o'clock, on the morning of the 14th of July; and as his servant returned to his chamber with his coffee, a quarter of an hour after, he found him dead by the side of his wash-stand.—We close our extracts, with the following account of his funeral. 'After the body had been laid out at the 'house of the deceased, on the evening of the 16th, it was 'carried early in the morning of the 17th to the lower 'hall of the Library, from which as his real home, the 'funeral was to proceed. From 7 o'clock, the train of 'mourners collected in the great hall. Here upon a table 'hung with black, were three white satin cushions, em-'broidered with gold; upon that in the middle was placed 'the badge of the Westphalian order, with an oaken gar-'land, upon the two others the Homer and Virgil of the 'deceased bound with laurel wreaths. The students with 'their marshals, assembled at the same time. At 8 o'clock 'the procession commenced, with solemn musick be-'fore the hearse, which was surrounded with pall-bearers, 'from among the students. Next to these followed Count 'von Schulenburg, with the cushion and Westphalian or-'der, with Professors Tychsen and Mitscherlich, on either 'side, bearing the two other cushions, with the two prin-'cipal works of the deceased. The procession passed by 'the house of the deceased through the Pauline and Ween-'der streets, to the church-yard by the Weender gate,

'where his grave had been prepared by the side of those of 'Meister and von Schlozer. Some friendly hands had strew-'ed it with roses and other flowers. The procession form-'ed itself in two rows about the grave, and before the coffin 'was deposited, the sublime hymn of Klopstock "thou '"shalt rise! thou shalt rise*!" was sung by a number 'of the students. The Prorector Pott advanced to the 'grave, and made a short address, adapted to the solemn 'moment. A profound stillness prevailed throughout the 'concourse, and the address itself was rather a thank-'offering to God, who had given us this memorable man, 'and preserved him to us in the exercise of his faculties 'to the last moment, than a funeral lamentation. The 'procession returned in like order to the hall of the library, 'where after the deposition of the badge and writings of 'the deceased, in their former places, professor Benecke, 'as one of the overseers of the library, pronounced a short 'but sublime and affecting speech, and the procession dis-'persed. Shortly after was distributed a Latin poem com-'posed in the name of the academy, by Professor Mitscher-'lich, and entitled "*Pietas Georgiae Augustae, in funere 'viri summi Christiani Gottlob Heyne, ordinis coronae 'Westphaliae equitis, eloquentiae et poeseos professoris 'publici ordinarii.*"'

In taking our leave of this very entertaining work, we have only to express our regret, that our limits have not admitted of larger extracts. A great many anecdotes of the literature of the last half of the 18th and beginning of the 19th century are scattered through it, and it yields more incidental information upon the state of the German literary establishments, so far as Heyne, in a life of 83 years, was connected with them, than is easily to be found in any other book of the same compass, with which we are acquainted. We cannot but express our surprise that it has not yet had a translation into English.

Mr. Heyne's literary empire, like that of Alexander, was divided among four successors. He is succeeded by Professor Mitscherlich, as professor of Eloquence, by Mr. Reurss as principal Librarian, by Blumenbach as Secretary of the Royal Society, and by Eichhorn as editor of the Literary Journal.

* 'Auferstehn Auferstehn wirst Du!'

A Digest of the Law of Maritime Captures and Prizes. By Henry Wheaton, Counseller at Law, and Advocate, New-York, published by R. M. Dermut, and D. D. Arden, No. 1, City Hotel, Broadway. Forbes and Co. Printers.—1815.

A Digest of Prize law has long been a desideratum with professional gentlemen. What is written on the subject was dispersed over such a variety of volumes, treatises in different languages, and the reports of our own, that to bring it within the compass of a single book, is rendering 'the state some service.' A lawyer's library, from the lumber of its thousands of volumes, has grown to be so repulsive an object, that writers of Digests are more than ever in requisition to reconcile us to the task of attempting to master whatever of substance it contains. Those are here the most useful labourers, whose exertions most conduce to the saving of labour. Nor is the work humble. Judges of highest ambition have engaged in it. Gilbert and Comyn, Blackstone and Buller. The extensive utility of the end gave dignity to the means; and these men were satisfied that they could not more effectually exalt their ambition into virtue, than by devoting their talents and benevolence to the relief of the profession from that superincumbent weight, which they were sensible oppressed, and which, they had reason to believe, threatened in no very long time to crush it. If books were indeed in their day mischievously many, how much more alarming is the evil now, when a new world has been given to the common law, and the Reports of this hemisphere already vie in voluminousness with those of the other. Yet it seems the increasing evil is destined still to increase. It grows out of our liberties, and is the exuberance of excessive fertility. Excrescencies would be less frequent, from a liberty less rich. Formalities increase, said Montesquieu, in proportion to the value which is set on the honour, fortune, liberty and life of the subject.

These remarks grow out of a review of a new Digest. The compiler has brought to his task assiduity and judgment, discrimination and research. He may not have cited all the authorities that could possibly have been produced, in support of some points, but enough are cited to

settle the law, and the profession will thank him for sparing the rest. With respect to the competence of a belligerent court to condemn prizes while lying in a neutral port, the case of the Comet, 5 Rob. 285. might have been added to the cases cited, and this question must now be considered at rest, notwithstanding the very respectable decision of the N. Y. Supreme Court as pronounced by Ch. J. Kent, 1. Johns. 478, and the dissentient opinions in the cases in Cranch, since these cases have since been adopted as law in divers of the Circuits; and while the volume before us was passing the press, they were adopted, in the case of a libel against goods taken from the brigs Arabella and Madeira and carried to Canton, China, by Story J. who was not of the court when those cases were decided. Extreme convenience first gave rise to the practice which these decisions sanction, and though we agree with Chief Justice Kent, *Scaevolae assentimur*, that courts of this country were not bound by the practice, but were at liberty from the precedents that controlled Sir William Scott, yet we think they were to yield, not indeed to the practice, but the convenience that suggested it. It is alike convenient to us, as to every other maritime people, who have found the convenience imperative. The practice is indeed a deviation from the principle on which admiralty jurisdiction was thought to be founded; but what amounts to the legal notion of necessity justifies this deviation. It is at all events of importance, that on this subject there be but one rule the world over, and more than half the world had already settled it for themselves, before the turn came to us to pass upon the question.

In the first chapter reference is had to the decision of the Supreme Court of the Union in the case, Brown v. the United States, and much is extracted from the opinion of the Circuit Judge which that decision overruled. The decree pronounced by the District Judge which that decision affirmed, contained matter pertinent to this chapter, and we regret that the author has not availed himself of the manuscript in this instance, and given this opinion a place, for the same reason he assigns, page 267, for giving place to the address of M. Portalis.

This work is divided into ten chapters, which comprehend very fully the whole of the subject. The appendix might perhaps have been spared, notwithstanding the value of the

six first articles, they having already been published in various works. In some instances citations are made from MS. opinions, since in print, and for the convenience of reference, we supply the places where the passages cited may be found in the printed volume.

Page 29	Emulous, Brown claimant.	See 1. Circ. Ct. Reports, first Circ. 563	
105	Ann Green	Ib.	274
165	The Julia	Ib.	609
174	Liverpool Packet	Ib.	513
219	Per Story J. MS.	Ib.	467
298	Decatur v. Chew	Ib.	506

Croudun et al. v. Leonard is cited p. 275, and the page and volume omitted. It is 4; Cranch 424.

In a work of this nature much original matter is not to be expected. The little here given, makes the reader regret, that the scope of the undertaking would admit of no more. Fairness and fidelity in compilation, precision in connecting the passages compiled, judgment in the division and arrangement, are all that can be expected from a digest, and the expectation is here not in vain. There was little on the subject in the language before, or rather little in any one volume, but what was to be found in the Law of War, translated from Bynkershoek by Du Ponceau, or in Lee on captures, an inferiour translation of the same work. Mr. Wheaton has collated and condensed whatever could be selected of importance, in various languages, from writers on the law of nations, from the Reports of Judicial decisions, and from the works of eminent civilians. Without any parade of erudition, the writer has endeavoured to satisfy a profession not satisfied with a little learning; and to save others' labour has been laborious himself. His subject has indeed abated much of its interest from the re-establishment of peace. But from its own nature, and the nature of man, the utility of the work is, we fear, permanent, and it should certainly find a place among the permanent authorities of a lawyer's library.

A general History of New England, from the discovery, to 1680, *by the Rev.* WILLIAM HUBBARD, *Minister of Ipswich, Mass. Published by the Massachusetts' Historical Society. Cambridge,* 1815, *Hilliard and Metcalf. pp.* 676.

The early settlement of the vast territories, now comprised under the national term, United States, is better known in history, than that of any other independent empire in the world. Though much is recorded of the colonial establishments of Spain, Portugal and France, yet even the progress of their improvement, it is probable, cannot be deduced with so much minuteness and authenticity, for the proceedings of the governments in the mother countries have been seldom exposed to any but their officers, and the settlers in their new found dominions were as much below our ancestors in education, as were their motives for removal.

Such an establishment of colonies, as the early part of the seventeenth century witnessed, the world had never seen, and may never, it is hoped, behold again. No regret, however, for the principles of our fathers induces this wish, for no nation can vindicate so honourable an ancestry as ours. Partial exceptions in the colonization of Georgia or portions of Virginia, may be left as marks for sportive malignity, or inveterate prejudice ; but who will deny that the New England Colonies, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Carolina were peopled by men of eminence in the civil, military, and ecclesiastical ranks ? They were, indeed, men, of whom the old world was not worthy, and whom in their characteristick virtues, the new, with all its advantages, cannot excel. At the sneers against such venerable confessors, sometimes uttered by the small wits of England, we are compelled to smile, but excuse their presumption, by the supposition, that their knowledge of us may reach back only fifty years. We can hardly with more justice be severe on their ridiculous errours than on the self-complacence of the French, who imagine our independence to have resulted from their disinterested support.

That vague expectations of great abundance from the fertility of soil, or wealth of mines in the land of promise, did in some degree induce a large portion of the adventurers to North-America, may well be granted ; yet when

such expectations were not verified, their cheerful perseverance bears honourable testimony to the nobler considerations that combined to direct, if not to originate their counsels. From ungrateful fields and a severe climate, they heroically awaited the slow and late rewards, of which the united force of new diseases, unforeseen casualties, and crafty enemies would not destroy, though they diminished their hopes. Of their patience and sobriety, such rare qualities in early colonists, much must be ascribed to education. It should not be forgotten, that the proportion of our Massachusetts settlers who had been bred at Oxford, Cambridge, and the best schools of England, was equal, if not superiour to that among their fellow subjects at home. Nor is it less to their honour, that the debt was liberally repaid from the first fruits of Harvard College, many of whose sons obtained stations of usefulness and honour in the land of their fathers. By what other nation can such claims to respect be advanced? The renowned assembly at Westminster desired the attendance of two of our divines, and England was usually regarded rather as a field for a more severe exertion, than a retreat for pleasure and indolence. The number of such as went home, sick at the disappointment of sanguine hopes, was much below that of the enthusiasts who returned, on the commencement of the great revolution, to encourage their brethren in the doubtful contest between rights and prerogative. They felt, indeed, an uncommon importance, as the agents of Providence, and constantly instructed by it, in civilizing a country, for which no other equal portion of mankind could have expected similar success; and their choice seems only to have been endeared by want, and hazard, and difficulty. To the Commonwealth, erected and supported with such devoted labours, each leader could appropriate the affectionate apostrophe:

> Did I but purpose to embark with thee
> On the smooth surface of a summer's sea,
> While gentle zephyrs play in prosperous gales,
> And fortune's favour fills the swelling sails;
> But would forsake the ship and make the shore,
> When the winds whistle, and the tempests roar?

The history of our ancestors is indeed of the greatest value, as affording examples, yet our honest admiration need

not be so strong as not to permit us to observe some of their conduct as warning. Into very unjust applications of the accidents of life, as judgments on vicious courses and even harmless errours, they were not unfrequently led by their habit of regarding every event, especially an adverse one, as a direct interposition of heaven, though, in the circumstances of their settlement, such delusion may be viewed with tenderness as salutary or consoling. In all our early histories, and remarkably in the work before us, occasions frequently occur, in which we may accuse their precipitancy. The cause and the palliation of such mistakes, may easily be found in the constant reference of incidents in their little state, to similar ones in the annals of the Jews, in the deduction of maxims of their daily economy from the Old Testament; and in their romantick devotedness to certain branches of religious duty, in which the ardour of zeal sometimes exceeded their knowledge.

Of the present narrative, which, though it has existed in manuscript above a hundred and thirty years, has yet been justly appreciated and generally known to profound inquirers after our antiquities, a minute examination will neither be expected or desired. It may be observed that Prince and Mather made much use of it. It was more honoured as the best source of his information by Hutchinson, whose writing is more worthy of the dignified title of history than any other American composition during our colonial state. To style, indeed, Hubbard has in this work afforded little attention, or rather has employed several modes of composition in his different chapters, here dilating in a careful examination of events and discussion of principles, there confining himself to the most meagre manner of the humblest diary. But his skill may be ascertained from his election sermon, which no work of the two next generations surpassed. In this book liberal assistance is derived from Winthrop's journal, of which, though the most valuable repository of our early history, Hutchinson could not avail himself. A striking deficiency is instantly perceived in our author's labours, when he loses that guidance, and the poverty of the narrative of facts subsequent to 1650 enables us to estimate our obligations to the first governour of Massachusetts. Yet Hubbard's claims as the historian of the great war of 1675-6 are

universally acknowledged, for three editions have made his Indian wars well known.

We cannot however part from this work without a few quotations, of which the first will exhibit the sobriety of the writer, in advantageous contrast with several later builders of systems. It is known to many of our readers, that some authors of great name have supposed our Aborigines the descendants of the ten lost tribes of Israel; and Adair's account of them is wholly occupied with this hypothesis, and curious proofs of similarity between the Indian and Hebrew languages. Perhaps Hubbard's observations will be not less regarded for having been written long before.

'If any observation bee made of their manners and dispo-'sitions, its easyer to say from what nations they did not, 'then from whom they did derive theire orriginall. 'Doubtless theire conjecture who fansy them to be des-'cended from the ten tribes of the Israelites, carried cap-'tive by Salamaneser and Esarhaddon, hath the least 'shew of reason of any other, there being noe footsteps to 'bee observed of their propinquity to them more than to 'any other of the tribes of the earth, either as to their lan-'guage or manners. No instance can bee given of any na-'tion in the world, that hath so fare degenerated from the 'purity of their orriginall tongue in 1500 or 2000 yeeres, 'butt that there may be observed some rudiments of the 'ancient language, as may bee seene in the Greeke and 'Latine tongues, though they are now utterly lost as to 'the purity of them; yett it is easy to trace either of them 'amongest the nations since descended from those that na-'turally spoke the language; butt here can noe such thinge 'bee observed amonge the natives of America. Besides, 'here is found no footsteps of the idolatry or rites of any 'religious worship the people had degenerated into, nor are 'any other customes here to bee observed, that bespeake 'any relation to that stocke, more then to any other peo-'ple, unless it be poligamy, which yett was no more pecu-'liar to the Jews then to all other nations of the East. It 'is certainly knowne also, that within 200 miles compasse 'their language is nothing akin; so that as one nation of the 'natives can no more understand the language of them that 'live a 100 miles from them, unlesse a little upon the sea 'coast, then if they spake Greeke or Welsh; as is evident 'to them that have been amongst the Mohawks, who live

'not to above 100 miles westward from the sea coast: yett 'their language is different one from the other, as the 'English is from the Welsh.'

Our regard for the colonists of Plymouth is not quite so high as for those of Massachusetts and New Haven, perhaps because they were not equal in the advantages of education or of ancestry; but we cannot omit the characters of the two leaders, who, like Moses and Aaron, directed their departure from the land of strangers, though one only enjoyed the fruit of his labours.

'The said Robinson, to give him his due, was a man of 'good learning, of a polished wit, and ingenious disposition 'and courteous behaviour, yet not without great tincture of 'the spirit of the rigid separation, as is so well known by 'sundry of his writings, published to the world about those 'times: yet doth he deserve commendation in this, that al- 'though he had been transported so far with those princi- 'ples as to publish his opinion against hearing any of the 'preachers of the Church of England, were they never so 'learned and pious; yea to that confidence was he arrived, 'that he began to play with Dr. Ames his name, styling him 'in one of his pamphlets, "Mr. William Amiss;" yet after 'the Doctor had taken him to task, and showed him his 'great mistake, in his unanswerable piece, called "A manu- 'duction to Mr. Robinson," and finding himself unable to 'grapple any longer with so great a master of reason, he 'submitted, not being willing to speak any thing against the 'truth, that had been by the help of an antagonist discover- 'ed unto him. Yea farther, he came afterwards to acknow- 'ledge, and in a judicious and godly discourse to approve 'and defend the lawful liberty, if not the duty, in case of 'hearing the godly preachers of the Church of England. 'Thus like Paul he preached that, which he had with his 'pen persecuted before; like some fruit, that before it is 'ripe is harsh, sour, and unpleasant, till it attain, by the ad- 'vantage of after time, to the mildness and sweetness of 'riper age; as was observed in this good man, who, as he 'grew in years, grew in many excellent gifts, both of na- 'ture and grace, and great moderation of spirit in regard 'of what he manifested in former time, which was not often 'found in them of that rigid persuasion. This passage is 'intended as rather matter of commendation than reflection 'upon that eminent person, or any of the Christian bre-

'thren of his church. To proceed, therefore, there was 'one Mr. Brewster, a prudent, grave, and serious Chris- 'tian, of great experience in things of religion, and a man of 'a finer alloy than the ordinary sort of the separation, hav- 'ing had no small advantage by his education under Secre- 'tary Davison, in the court of Queen Elizabeth, that was 'joined with the said Mr. Robinson in the eldership, by 'whose prudence and discretion that church was kept in 'sweet and entire union and accord, both before and after 'their parting asunder, contrary to the manner and custom 'of some of that persuasion in Holland.'

The liberality of the fathers of Massachusetts, with respect to church government and forms of worship, has not commonly been admitted. But the present volume, p. 117, will satisfy fair inquirers, that the rigid and exclusive system grew up several years afterwards. When all were mad in England, the colony could hardly be sober. The parting address to the church, from which they were separating, p. 126, could not have given offence to any judicious friends of episcopacy, and may ever be referred to with confidence.

A common libeller in Great Britain once noticed ours as the country 'where every scoundrel convict is a king.' In p. 137, of the history before us, it seems that certain offenders, besides imprisonment, and other severe punishments, were 'sent back to England, that the plantation here might be no longer pestered with them.'

Infant colonies have justice administered in a mode very different from older establishments, and many ludicrous accounts of inflictions of sentences, very irregularly given, are found in all our records. We may smile at the appropriateness of the following instance, but ought to remember the brazen bull of Dionysius.

'There was some exemplary punishment adjudged to 'some offenders in this kind, in the year 1639, for selling 'above 33*l.* per cent; but since that time the common 'practice of the country hath made double that advance no 'sin; an evil which, though every one feels the burden of, yet none know how to ease themselves thereof. A remark- 'able instance was that year given in one F. P. who for 'asking an excessive price for a pair of stocks which he 'was hired to frame, had the honour to sit an hour in them 'first himself, to warn others not to offend in the like kind.'

Another example may satisfy us of the superiour freedom of our degenerate age. 'One Hugh Bewet was at the next 'court of assistants, March the 1st, sent out of the jurisdic-'tion, for holding publickly, and maintaining that he was 'free from original sin; it being justly to be feared, that if 'he had staid still, he would have made himself, and others 'too, guilty of more actual sin, than his neighbours, (as is 'ordinarily found by experience of those great pretenders 'to perfection and holiness,) although he did also affirm, 'that for half a year before, he had been likewise free from 'actual sin.' At present, actual transgression is more than the legislator and judge can perfectly animadvert upon, and original sin may be maintained or denied, at the will of the disputants.

Very abundant relation is given here of the great schisms in the church of Boston, usually ascribed to Mrs. Hutchinson, although governours Vane and Cotton seem to have equally the honour of its origin. This lady's reveries seem to have caused as much trouble as those of Madam Guyon in France, but her spiritual father was a better politician than Fenelon. The minority were branded as antinomians and familists, yet the former epithet might with nearly equal justice be given to the prevalent party. How much fairness the Boston hereticks received may be easily imagined from the stories of the horrible judgments that Welde in his 'History of the rise, reign and ruin of Antinomianism' has drawn from heaven upon them. This contemptible *diablerie* is fully supported by Johnson and even by Mather, but Hubbard was more honest or less credulous. Yet much that Hubbard has admitted is rejected in our days; and though he tells us, p. 337, of the ridiculous opinions entertained at Rhode Island and that 'at Providence also the Devil was not idle,' we must consider much of that sort of history, as scandal rather than testimony.

A sound judgment, as a politician, will however be generally ascribed to our author, of which, had we room for the extract, all would be satisfied by his remarks on the New Haven polity, which subsisted without juries, p. 332, 333.

How early our character for enterprise was acquired should be seen in the account of 1645. 'As the country 'had hitherto begun to flourish in most English manufac-

'tures, so liberty was this year granted to make iron; for 'which purpose a work was set up at Lynn, upon a very 'commodious stream, which was very much promoted, and 'strenuously carried on, for some considerable time; but at 'length, whether *faber aut forceps, aut ars, ignara fefellit*, 'instead of drawing out bars of iron, for the country's use, 'there were hammered out nothing but contention and law-'suits, which was but a bad return for the undertakers; 'however it gave the occasion to others to acquaint them-'selves with that skill, to the great advantage of the colo-'nies, who have since that time found out many convenient 'places where very good iron, not much inferiour to that of 'Bilboa, may be produced; as at this day is seen in a vil-'lage near Topsfield, seven or eight miles west from Ips-'wich.' The spot, where this manufactory was carried on is still designated, in Saugus, by large banks of cinders and remains of milldams. That the undertaking was not abandoned for want of skill is evident by inspection of the cinders, from which the iron is perfectly extracted. The tradition of the neighbourhood ascribes the neglect to the cutting down the dams by persons, whose meadows were overflowed.

The fame of our clergy was widely disseminated, even before the school of the prophets at Cambridge was ready to furnish a supply. On p. 410. is told the tale of a mission from Virginia, 'entreating a supply of faithful ministers;' and similar requests were made from Barbadoes and other islands. Connected with the same subject, and rather more interesting to our readers, perhaps, is the relation of the case of one who disliked the maintenance of the ministry. 'About this time some difference happened in 'New England about the way of raising the maintenance of 'the ministers, in regard that many churches (through the 'defect of money and other considerations) proceeded 'therein rather by way of taxation than by contribution. 'This new way of easement was offensive to some in the 'country, who, it seems, could love none but ευαγγελιον αδαπανον. 'Amongst others it was very grievous to one Briscoe, a 'tanner of Watertown, (not of the temper of that tanner 'that entertained the apostle Peter;) for this man publish-'ed a book underhand against the way of maintenance, '(wherein himself and those that were no members were 'taxed to maintain the ministers of the place they belonged

'unto,) fuller of teeth to bite and reproach the ministers of 'the country, than arguments to convince the readers. He 'was convened before the court to answer for his reproach-'ful speeches, which he was forced publickly to acknow-'ledge his errour in; but for his arguments they were not 'worth the answering; for he that shall deny the exerting 'of the civil power to provide for the comfortable subsist-'ence of them that preach the gospel, *fuste potius erudien-'dus quam argumento*, as they say of them that are wont '*negare principia*. If it be the duty of magistrates to pro-'vide that the gospel is to be preached in their territories, 'it is doubtless a duty incumbent on the same power to 'provide that they may live thereby. Let him that is 'taught communicate to him that teacheth, in all good 'things, saith the apostle. As for the *quota pars* it can-'not be less, (whether *decima*, or *duodecima*, or *vicessima*,) 'than that he may live thereon.'

Chap. XLIX is of 'memorable accidents in New-England 'from 1641 to 1646;' and none should object to our mention of the errour of our fathers in ascribing general casualties to special judgments of the Almighty, without perusing this collection.

The account of La Tour, and his heroick wife will reward the reader, as would the character of Governour Winthrop. We have however been so liberal in our quotations, that we shall content ourselves with one that too powerfully exhibits the nature of a most unhappy delusion in our ancestors, to require any comment.

'In June 1648, one Margaret Jones, of Charlestown, was 'indicted for a witch, and executed for it. She was proved 'to have such a malignant touch that whomsoever she 'touched (man, woman, or child) with any affection of dis-'pleasure, were taken presently with deafness, vomiting, or 'other violent pains or sickness. Soon after she was exe-'cuted, a ship riding over against Charlestown, of 300 tons, 'having in her hold an hundred and twenty tons of ballast, 'and eighty horses aboard her for the Barbadoes, was on a 'sudden observed to roll, as if she would have turned over. 'The husband of that witch, lately executed, had desired 'passage in that ship to Barbadoes, which not obtaining, 'that accident was observed to follow. Notice being given 'of this to the magistrates then sitting in court at Boston, 'a warrant was sent to apprehend him, and as the officer

'was passing therewith over the ferry, one asked if he could 'not tame the vessel, seeing he could sometimes tame men; 'he answered, I have that here, which it may be will tame 'her and make her quiet, shewing his warrant, and at the 'same instant the ship began to stop her motion and swim 'upright, which had continued rolling after a strange man-'ner about twelve hours, and after Jones was in prison she 'never moved in that kind any more.'

We need not recommend this history, for none but lovers of historical antiquity will read it; and to such we could offer no stronger inducement than its title page. However, the curious inquirer into our language may find words of strange combination that may exercise his wit, and perhaps cause him to regret their disuse. *Mercate, incolumity, conductitions* and *acupict* have struck us. If the substance of this volume should fail to engage the attention of posterity, which may have more authentick and original materials of information, its style will always be an object of curiosity to those who recollect, that the author was in the first class of graduates at Harvard College.

American Jurisprudence, written and published at Washington, being a few reflections, suggested on reading 'Wheaton on Captures.' Washington, printed 8vo. pp. 52.

The laws against poachers in some countries, are so extremely severe, that a man may be sent to the gallies, or even executed for killing a hare or a pheasant. Though it is our rightful jurisdiction to make game of folly and absurdity, and run down their authors, yet in this country the laws afford us no more protection than they do to other sportsmen. In the present case we have detected a poacher, who, though he has not interfered with our *reserves* above alluded to, yet has clearly invaded our manour; he has sought to disguise himself as having a regular license, because, after the most approved models, he hardly notices the work which he professes to have in view. The indignation we felt at this invasion of our rights was however soon allayed in perusing his performance, by the pleasure derived from its *naiveté;* which is its most striking characteristick, a quality of all others the rarest to be met with.

This is the prevailing feature, and which would have led to his detection on the first examination, as it is never witnessed in the harsh, forbidding countenances of criticks.

The first instance we cite from the 13th page, in which there is the following figure. 'The Constitution with Cap-'tain Hull in her, did not come down upon the Gueriere in 'a spirit of more daring and triumphant energy, than the 'Philadelphia or New-York lawyers will sometimes do 'upon a statute that happens to run a little amiss!' The author has modestly put only one note of admiration to this sentence: he does himself injustice; the most phlegmatick reader would give it three or four. It is one of the vexations attending celebrity, that a man who achieves it sees his face vilely caricatured in magazines, or hung up on a sign-post to some sorry inn, or become the theme of vulgar plaudits and bombastick speeches. The officer who is here lugged in so unexpectedly, for a companion with a cavilling 'Philadelphia or New-York lawyer,' though he is as conspicuous for his modesty as his merit, must submit to the common fate of those who serve their country.

The next example is still more precious, because it is not only *naiveté*, but professional *naiveté*, and this too in a profession where it is the rarest of all exoticks.

'Lastly in the structure of our judicature, we have a mul-'titude of different sorts of Courts. We have Courts of 'common law and Courts of Chancery, Admiralty and 'Maritime Courts, Courts civil and Courts criminal, sittings 'at nisi prius and full terms in bank, register's courts, or-'phan's courts, escheator's courts, justices' courts, with the 'many gradations of some of them, and with others that 'might be made to swell the catalogue. It may be said, 'that this is nothing more than the judicial polity of other 'countries, particularly Britain, is liable to; that if you will 'begin at the piepoudre, and go up to the peers in parlia-'ment, you will run through, under some modification or 'other, as long an enumeration. This may be true. But 'the difference is, that the profession here is not subdivided 'in any of the states, in the way that it is in England, and 'the American lawyer is called upon at one period, or other 'of his life, to understand the constitution of each of these 'forms; to be familiar at least with their principles if not 'with their forms, as he passes on through the usual stages 'to the head of his profession.'

What a proof is here given of the force of habit; with what complacency, with what triumph does he run over this terrifick list, at the bare recital of which, a common man shudders with affright; *steteruntque comæ et vox faucibus haesit:* it reminds us of a conversation between two medical friends of ours. While comparing the relative advantages of our country with those of others, one of them rather despondingly remarked, that we had neither plague, elephantiasis, plica polonica nor goitres: the other to console him enthusiastically replied; but we have yellow fever, and spotted fever, and influenza, and dyspepsia!

In speaking of Sir William Scott he has struck out the following sentence—'In an argument where the utmost attenuation of thought is drawn out into corresponding exilities of expression, he labours with abortive yet splendid ingenuity to shew, that justice and such rescripts must ever be in harmonious union.' However fine this may be we denounce it; there is no such word as *exilities*, and none such is wanted. There are plainer synonymous ones that will answer for most of the things done at Washington. Every new material for a pompous inanity of style should be rigidly proscribed. There are some writers who think they have made a conquest if they have only introduced a barbarous word. Goldsmith once told Johnson, 'that if he 'were writing fables and introducing little fishes, he would 'make them talk like great whales.' Johnson's example has done much mischief; his hard words have been admired for their own merits, when they were only to be tolerated for the sentiments they conveyed. Since his time we are often disturbed by the foppery of those, who, utterly unable to wield the club, still cover themselves with the Nemean skin.

The writer says some handsome and some just things of this celebrated English Admiralty Judge. If to his integrity, his sagacity, his great learning, and luminous style, he had united greater firmness and elevation of mind; had he have refused to act while the permanent principles of the laws of nations were superseded by the iniquitous edicts of shortsighted politicians, then indeed his name would have gone to posterity, as one of the greatest men of his age; as it is, it will be recorded as one of the ablest.

We have one more quotation to make: 'In throwing out 'a conjectural sentiment, and one not altogether hasty, we 'presume to think that the law-mind, if we may so speak, 'of the United States has, from adequate causes, forerun 'the general condition of literature, and already been 'accelerated and matured into as much force and discipline 'as it is likely to reach in any more distant period of the 'country's advancement.' Now can any one say with certainty what is the meaning of this? what is the precise signification of *the law-mind of the United States?* We might *guess* at its meaning, because we inhabit a district where to guess is a birthright, the constant exercise of which is notorious, but we are unable to say with certainty what is the exact idea the author intended to express; yet it will not be at all surprising if this term should become popular; in the neighbourhood where it originated, it bears such a strong resemblance to some old favourites, that it may well be adopted.

This pamphlet has been attributed to an officer of high rank in the law; which we hope may have been done without any foundation. The extracts we have made are its most prominent defects; they are however sufficient to show a false and puerile taste. Yet we believe the author is capable of doing better: a comparison between American and English jurisprudence, and the lawyers of the two countries, is an interesting subject, but requires extensive acquaintance with both to do it justice.

Poems by William Cowper, Esq. Vol. 3d, containing his posthumous poetry, and a sketch of his life, by his kinsman, John Johnson, Rector of Yaxham.—Boston. Published by Wells and Lilly, 1815. *pp.* 307.

An accession to the works of Cowper is an event of no small interest to the reading world. There are few instances in which less is to be apprehended from the officious industry of friends, in gleaning scattered fragments, which were never intended for the publick, or which the author judged to be unworthy of publication. After the intimate acquaintance which Hayley has enabled us to form with Cowper, we are confident, that not even the activity of interested publishers will be able to hunt up any of his remaining produc-

tions, which are not characterized by tenderness, simplicity, chasteness, and piety.

In every language there is a small number of authors whose claims upon posterity are not to be disputed. From these the critick draws his rules, and these it is the first business of the student to learn to admire. Johnson did not think himself authorized to draw into the light what he deemed the faults and absurdities of Milton, before he had acknowledged him to be the first of English poets, and a rival of the first of all poets. Hume has said of Shakespeare, that it is doubtful whether his excellencies outweigh his faults, and we dissent from him respectfully; had any other than one of a distinguished literary character, made this remark, it would have been received with a compassionate sneer. Cowper's reputation is not so definitely fixed, nor his rank so exactly ascertained. Various opinions exist concerning his aggregate merit, as well as his particular beauties and defects. Some condemn him, in the lump, as tame and puny, and are not charged with a want of common sense, or pronounced to be destitute of sensibility to poetical excellence. A writer who addresses himself to fancy and sentiment, produces various and often opposite effects upon different readers. In reasoning, all understandings agree, when the terms of the argument are accepted in the same sense by each; but taste depends on education, prejudice, habit, and association of ideas, and as long as men differ in respect to these, the same succession of words must necessarily excite in them very different trains of emotions. Milton and Shakespeare have probably fewer spontaneous admirers than Pope and Cowper. In regard to the two former, publick opinion overawes us, and many a painful reader is compelled to work himself up to a seeming relish of sentiments which he does not feel, and a supposed admiration of beauties which he does not perceive. These authors appear in the literary world as grandsires, sometimes in the fashionable, surrounded by a brilliant circle of their own posterity. They are not in the height of the fashion, but above it; beyond the reach of imitation, and the influence of censure. They are exempted from the rules and modes of the time, and their venerable peculiarities and long established dignity are considered sacred. It is otherwise with those of the subordinate ranks, they continue to be subject to criticism. Many do not scruple to call Pope a

mere rhymster, and there are not wanting those who say of the Task, 'it is a task to read it.' In matters of taste, every man's opinion must be right in respect to himself, and we are not to disturb his quiet possession of it, so long as he forbears to prescribe it to others. It would be folly to undertake to reason men into pleasure or disgust, and had we the power, we should not have the wish, to forbid any one the expression of the satisfaction or displeasure, with which he regards a production expressly submitted to him by its author. If one forms his judgment of a work exclusively from the manner in which he is affected by the perusal of it, he should confine the application of his decision to himself, instead of extending into a general criticism. To judge rightly of an author, we must view objects from the position assumed by himself, or that occupied by the generality of his readers. Unless we take the station at which the artist has sketched the landscape, we shall in vain look for a resemblance to the real scene. Thus, in estimating the pictures of men and things drawn by a poet, we must take into consideration the relations of the writer, and the character of the readers for whom his production is intended. If he contemplates life through the gloom and mist of religious melancholy, we may condemn his choice of a position, and pronounce his views to be false, yet when we place ourselves at the same point of observation, objects assume to us the same sombre hues, and appear in the same exaggerated dimensions. We must reverse Adam Smith's principle, and as, according to him, we might, as it were, become divested of our identity, and view ourselves at a distance as impartial spectators of our own characters and conduct, so, to judge rightly of others, we should, in a manner, transfuse ourselves into, and become identified with them.

As philosophers, we may smile at the portents, prodigies, and divine interpositions which occur so frequently in the works of Cowper, and which, according to his letters, he often observed and experienced. Practical, sensible men, who are satisfied with the world and its inhabitants, as it has pleased God to make them, would not do the solitary and desponding bard justice, were they to form their opinion of him from the many passages written in the spirit of the following extract:

> I see that all are wanderers, gone astray,
> Each in his own delusions; they are lost

In chase of fancied happiness, still woo'd
And never won. Dream after dream ensues;
And still they dream that they shall still succeed,
And still are disappointed. Rings the world
With the vain stir? I sum up half mankind,
And add two-thirds of the remaining half,
And find the total of their hopes and fears,
Dreams, empty dreams.—TASK, Book 3.

Men of extensive and profound views of human life, and such as think that there are not so great fluctuations of happiness, and virtue and vice, as there are in the notions entertained concerning them, do not condole with Cowper in his lamentations over the follies and enormities of the present times, and do not very sorrowfully mourn at the reported 'sickness and death of the hoary sage Disci-'pline.' In reading such things, they consider who the writer is, and what sort of people they generally are, by whom he expects to be read. Cowper requires of us very liberal allowances on account of his character, situation, and habits of thinking. It is not surprising that such a satirist as he, should not choose proper objects, or aim his shafts with skill. His religious prejudices and views of life, have a tendency to make the man who adopts them, ridiculous, useless, and unhappy. But we do not read poetry to learn the rules of living and judging; we commonly regard it as an instrument to excite a delicate and refined pleasure, and the means of chastening and softening our sensibilities. In this respect Cowper is a poet. Can any one read him, and not be animated by the glow of benevolence which is diffused through his writings? It must be a hard heart that is not touched by the tenderness of his sentiments, and a dull sensibility, that is not moved by his lively and accurate representations of nature. Those who relish social and domestick enjoyments, find in Cowper the best finished descriptions of the scenes of their happiness. His style is pure, not unfrequently elegant, and always easy. He has little fire, brilliancy, or sublimity; he frequently delights, but never astonishes.

The volume, the publication of which is the occasion of these remarks, is commenced with a life of the author, written by Dr. John Johnson, his nephew, and editor of this supplement to his works. Any new facts of importance were not to be expected in this piece of biography.

It is not executed with very great ability; it cannot fail, however, to entertain those who have not read Hayley, and to those who have, this abstract will not be tedious. The subject, in whatever form presented, is interesting, and suggests many reflections upon human life, and the causes of happiness and misery. When we find a man possessing so many means of felicity, continually groaning under the burthen of existence during the day, and 'hunted by spi-'ritual hounds during the night,' we are led to think that external circumstances constitute but a small part of the good or evil of life, and that constitutional temperament, and the regulation of the desires and imagination, are more important to well being, than mental endowments, fortune, or friends. Were one to name those circumstances in which existence is most desirable, he would bring into the enumeration many of those which belonged to Cowper. He was exempted, in a great measure, from want and care,—he possessed a lively susceptibility of the pleasurable influence of beauty in all its forms—friends surrounded him, who were ready to devote their lives to his comfort—he scarcely met a countenance which did not greet him with the signs of affection and esteem. Add to these his talents of conversation, his powers of pleasing, and love of friendly, familiar society. But he was able to avail himself of these advatages during only a small part of his life. Terrible images possessed his imagination, which he could not dispel; he seemed to be hanging over the abyss of eternal torments; the canker of despair was corroding his heart, and he cultivated a sensibility, which only served to render his sense of suffering more poignant. He needed something of the philosophical indifference, or stoical fortitude, which constitute some part of virtue, and which often enable us to disarm destiny, by teaching us to deride or defy it.

A greater part of the contents of this volume had been already published; they are now put into the form of a convenient addition to the two former volumes of Cowper's poems. The lines addressed to a lady, on reading 'the Prayer for Indifference,' are not in Hayley's collection, and it is one of the best original pieces in this volume. In the beginning of the Retired Cat, the reader will perhaps recognize something of Swift's manner.

A poet's cat, sedate and grave,
As poet well could wish to have,

Was much addicted to enquire
For nooks to which she might retire,
And where secure as mouse in chink,
She might repose, or sit and think,
I know not where she caught the trick—
Nature perhaps herself had cast her
In such a mould *philosophique*,
Or else she learned it of her master,
Sometimes ascending debonair,
An apple tree, or lofty pear,
Lodg'd with convenience in the fork,
She watch'd the gardener at his work,
Sometimes her ease and solace sought
In an old, empty watering pot,
There wanting nothing, save a fan,
To seem some nymph in her sedan,
Apparell'd in exactest sort,
And ready to be borne to court, etc.

There is an address to an ancient oak tree at Yardley, in blank verse, which contains many thoughts quite characteristick. We shall extract a part of this little poem.

Time made thee what thou wast, king of the woods;
And Time hath made thee what thou art—a cave
For owls to roost in. Once thy spreading boughs
O'erhung the champaign; and the num'rous flocks,
That graz'd it, stood beneath that ample cope
Uncrowded, yet safe shelter'd from the storm.
No flock frequents thee now. Thou hast outliv'd
Thy popularity, and art become
(Unless verse rescue thee awhile) a thing
Forgotten, as the foliage of thy youth.

While thus through all the stages thou hast push'd
Of treeship—first a seedling, hid in grass;
Then twig; then sapling; and, as cent'ry roll'd
Slow after century, a giant bulk
Of girth enormous, with moss-cushioned root
Upheav'd above the soil, and sides emboss'd
With prominent wens globose—till at the last
The rottenness, which time is charg'd to inflict
On other mighty ones, found also thee.

What exhibitions various hath the world
Witnessed of mutability in all,
That we account most durable below!

Change is the diet, on which all subsist,
Created changeable, and change at last
Destroys them. Skies uncertain now the heat
Transmitting cloudless, and the solar beam
Now quenching in a boundless sea of clouds—
Calm and alternate storm, moisture and drought,
Invigorate by turns the springs of life,
In all that live, plant, animal, and man,
And in conclusion mar them. Nature's threads,
Fine passing thought, e'en in her coarsest works,
Delight in agitation, yet sustain
The force, that agitates, not unimpair'd;
But, worn by frequent impulse, to the cause
Of their best tone their dissolution owe.

Thought cannot spend itself, comparing still
The great and little of thy lot, thy growth
From almost nullity into a state
Of matchless grandeur, and declension thence,
Slow, into such magnificent decay.
Time was, when settling on thy leaf, a fly
Could shake thee to the root—and time has been
When tempests could not. At thy firmest age
Thou hadst within thy bole solid contents,
That might have ribb'd the sides and plank'd the deck
Of some flagg'd admiral; and tortuous arms,
The shipwright's darling treasure, didst present
To the four-quartered winds, robust and bold,
Warp'd into tough knee timber,* many a load!
But the axe spared thee. In those thriftier days
Oaks fell not, hewn by thousands, to supply
The bottomless demands of contest, wag'd
For senatorial honours. Thus to time
The task was left to whittle thee away
With his sly scythe, whose ever nibbling edge,
Noiseless, an atom, and an atom more,
Disjoining from the rest, has, unobserv'd,
Achiev'd a labour, which had far and wide,
By man performed, made all the forests ring.

Embowell'd now, and of thy ancient self
Possessing nought, but the scoop'd rind, that seems
An huge throat, calling to the clouds for drink,

* Knee-Timber is found in the crooked arms of oak, which, by reason of their distortion, are easily adjusted to the angle formed where the deck and ship's sides meet.

Which it would give in rivulets to thy root,
Thou temptest none, but rather much forbidd'st
The feller's toil, which thou couldst ill requite.
Yet is thy root sincere, sound as the rock,
A quarry of stout spurs, and knotted fangs,
Which, crook'd into a thousand whimsies, clasp
The stubborn soil, and hold thee still erect.

So stands a kingdom, whose foundation yet
Fails not, in virtue and in wisdom laid,
Though all the superstructure, by the tooth
Pulverized of venality, a shell
Stands now, and semblance only of itself!

Thine arms have left thee. Winds have rent them off
Long since, and rovers of the forest wild
With bow and shaft, have burnt them. Some have left
A splintered stump, bleach'd to a snowy white;
And some, memorial none where once they grew.
Yet life still lingers in thee, and puts forth
Proof not contemptible of what she can,
Even where death predominates. The spring
Finds thee not less alive to her sweet force,
Than yonder upstarts of the neighb'ring wood,
So much thy juniors, who their birth receiv'd
Half a millenium since the date of thine.

But since, although well qualified by age
To teach, no spirit dwells in thee, nor voice
May be expected from thee, seated here
On thy distorted root, with hearers none,
Or prompter, save the scene, I will perform
Myself the oracle, and will discourse
In my own ear such matter as I may.

One man alone, the Father of us all,
Drew not his life from woman; never gaz'd,
With mute unconsciousness of what he saw,
On all around him; learn'd not by degrees,
Nor ow'd articulation to his ear;
But, moulded by his Maker into man
At once, upstood intelligent, survey'd
All creatures, with precision understood
Their purport, uses, properties, assigned
To each his name significant, and, fill'd
With love and wisdom, render'd back to Heav'n,
In praise harmonious the first air he drew.
He was excus'd the penalties of dull

Minority. No tutor charg'd his hand
With the thought-tracing quill, or task'd his mind
With problems. History, not wanted yet,
Lean'd on her elbow, watching Time, whose course,
Eventful, should supply her with a theme.—

Cowper does not always sustain himself, and there are not wanting instances of the flatness which might be expected in the compositions of a school-boy. The following lines are taken from what Hayley calls 'an heroick ballad of 'exquisite pathos,' on the loss of the Royal George.

Eight hundred of the brave,
Whose courage well was tried,
Had made the vessel heel,
And laid her on her side.

A land breeze shook the shrouds,
And she was overset,
Down went the Royal George,
With all her crew complete.

In some recent production of Southey, (a birth-day ode, if we are not mistaken,) there is a coincidence of thought with the following lines, taken from the ode written in honour of John Thornton. Speaking of his liberality,

And though in act unwearied, merit still
As in some solitude the summer rill
Refreshes, where it winds, the faded green,
And cheers the drooping flowers, unheard, unseen.

We cannot but quote the following passage from one of Cowper's letters, for the edification of some excessively devout readers, who admire him only as a *gloomy* religionist. Writing to the editor of this volume, who was then a student in theology, he says, 'You must give yourself to the 'study of Greek; not merely that you may be able to read 'Homer, and the other Greek Classicks, with ease, but 'the Greek Testament, and the Greek Fathers also. Thus 'qualified, and by the aid of your fiddle into the bargain, 'together with some portion of the grace of God, (without 'which nothing can be done,) to enable you to look well to 'your flock, when you shall get one, you will be well set 'up for a parson.'

Journal of a tour and residence in Great Britain during the years 1810 *and* 1811 *by a French Traveller, with remarks on the Country, its Arts, Literature, and Politicks, and on the Manners and Customs of its inhabitants. Edinburgh: printed by Ramsay and Co. for Constable and Co. and Longman, Hurst and Co. London,* 1815. 2 *vols.* 8*vo. pp.* 742. *With plates.*

The English have contributed more than any other people to the stock of travels. They have visited and described every country in Europe; their own country in return has not been often depicted by foreigners; of the American travellers who have published accounts of England, the work of professor Silliman has been hitherto the best. Perhaps the most complete book of travels in England that has yet been produced, was Southey's fictitious 'Letters of Espriella.' The English, however, have left but little for other nations to do. Having been confined so much at home for the last twenty years, and so long excluded from the Continent, they have travelled over their own islands, and there have been so many tours, so many descriptions of Scotland, Ireland, Wales, and every county in England; that for every thing, except national character and manners, their own books are more complete, than any that can be written by a stranger. Still it is always interesting to see one country described by the native of another; and if the traveller possesses intelligence and a moderate share of liberality, his observations will possess the value of impartial judgment. People are seen by others under lights and shades, in which they can never behold themselves.

We do not recollect any instance of a traveller possessing more requisites, for giving an interesting book of travels in England, than those which appear to have been united in the author of the work before us. He was a Frenchman educated in France, lived in the United States twenty years, where he acquired a perfect knowledge of the language and literature of England, and became sufficiently accustomed to political institutions of the same generick character, though much more free and elementary, to be able to judge of those in a country so different from his own, without being confounded, disgusted or dazzled by

their novelty and peculiar physiognomy. He appears to have a general knowledge of most of the subjects of science, of literature, political economy, and the fine arts, which would come in the way of an intelligent traveller. In addition to all this, he seems, what is indeed uncommon, to be almost wholly exempt from passion, prejudice, or the spirit of party. His opinions are all the result of his observation, not received from others; and he is remarkably independent without being rude or illiberal. In the article of paintings, for instance, he speaks as a connoisseur, but quite uninfluenced by names or established reputation. He admires no pictures of Raphael, except the Cartoons at Hampton court, which are indeed the only pictures of that great artist in England that have any merit, though there is a very fine Cartoon copy of the Transfiguration, at Kensington palace. He denounces Rubens, in which we join with him most entirely; for the great reputation of this artist must be founded on his science, and be truly felt only by artists. It is impossible that a person who should possess only taste without skill can be pleased with his paintings. With respect to Rembrandt, we cannot follow him, he extols him too much. His observations on this subject, which are true and natural, extend to the publick exhibitions, and the principal private collections, such as the Marquis of Lansdown's, Mr. Hope's, Mr. Angerstein's, &c.

A man who travels in a free country, however, is not confined to the paintings and statues, musick and the theatres, he must naturally engage in questions of political economy, of government and literature. The work contains discussions on the prominent topicks of the day, paper currency, reform in Parliament, &c. &c. These are treated with discernment and perfect temper and impartiality. He leans abstractedly to the side of strong government, and having himself been educated under a despotick form, seems to have found a sort of relief from the perfect freedom of the United States, in the institutions of England, which held the medium between the two. It is perhaps quite impossible that any man, brought up under a despotism, should feel entire confidence in a perfectly free state. The absence of accustomed restriction, would in his mind always be blended with the apprehension of inadequate protection. Men are the creatures of habit in government, as in every thing else, and the safety arising to a free government from this source, is

quite as powerful as under a despotick one; it is safe in its natural exercise, and dangerous only when violated or counteracted.

We watched with some curiosity, to see if the author had been able to divest himself absolutely, of all national susceptibility. For a Frenchman, however magnanimous he may be, unless his feelings are wholly blunted, must sometimes have them disagreeably excited in England. We think we have perceived a little of this, in his familiar acquaintance with the lighter works of Voltaire, whom he sometimes quotes; for instance, at p. 355, vol. i. one of the instances of the admirable satire of that celebrated wit, and we could not help imagining that there was a secret solace, in recurring from any thing that might be offensive at the moment, to the recollection of the wit and sarcasm which had been exerted on the other side. There are also some remarks on the use of the word *charlatanerie* in the Edinburgh Review, while speaking of some transaction in France, as if, he remarks very justly, there was no such thing as quackery in England, and no word to express it.

His descriptions of England are very good. The roads, the inns, the cultivation, the movement of the population, the splendour and number of the villas, the neatness of the country houses and cottages appear to have struck him, as they must every stranger, with admiration. His account of Scotland and Wales is very full, the scenery of the lakes of Cumberland is minutely given, perhaps a little too much so. The volumes are ornamented with many plates of ruins and natural scenery, from drawings by the author, which are finely executed. We shall now proceed to make copious extracts with a few occasional remarks.

'*January* 8. We arrived at Bath last night. The chaise drew up in style at the White Hart. Two well-dressed footmen were ready to help us to alight, presenting an arm on each side. Then a loud bell on the stairs, and lights carried before us to an elegantly furnished sitting room, where the fire was already blazing. In a few minutes, a neat looking chamber-maid, with an ample white apron, pinned behind, came to offer her services to the ladies, and shew the bed-rooms. In less than half an hour, five powdered *gentlemen* burst into the room with the dishes, &c. and two remained to wait. I give this as a sample of the best or rather the finest inns. Our bill was

2l. 11s. sterling, dinner for three, tea, beds and breakfast. The servants have no wages,—but depending on the generosity of travellers, they find it their interest to please them. They, the servants, cost us about five shillings a day.

'This morning we have explored the town, which is certainly very beautiful. It is built of freestone of a fine cream-colour, and contains several publick edifices in good taste. We remarked a circular place called the Crescent, another called the Circus;—all the streets straight and regular. The town looks as if it had been cast in a mould all at once; so new, so fresh, and regular. The building where the medical water is drunk, and where the baths are, exhibits very different objects; human nature, old, infirm and in ruins, or weary and ennuyé. Bath is a sort of great monastery, inhabited by single people, particularly superannuated females. No trade, no manufactures, no occupations of any sort, except that of killing time, the most laborious of all. Half of the inhabitants do nothing, the other half supplies them with nothings;—multitudes of splendid shops, full of all that wealth and luxury can desire, arranged with all the arts of seduction.

'Being in haste, and not equipped for the place, we left it at three o'clock, dined and slept fourteen miles off, on the direct road to London. During our ride we saw a little stream appear among the willows, in the vale below. I asked a woman at the toll-gate what the name of it was: "Sure, sir, the Avon." It is not easy to avoid failing in respect to English rivers, by mistaking them for mere rivulets. I have heard an Englishman who was amusing himself with the ignorance prevalent in foreign countries, tell a story of a lady who said to him, "Have you in England any rivers like this?" (the Seine;) but interrupting herself, added laughingly, "Good God, how can I be so silly, it is an island; there are no rivers!" I really think the lady was not so very much in the wrong.

'The country is beautiful, rich, and varied, with villas and mansions, and dark groves of pines,—shrubs in full bloom, evergreen lawns, and gravel walks so neat—with porter's lodges built in rough cast, and stuck all over with flints, in their native grotesqueness; for this part of England is a great bed of chalk, full of this singular production, (flints.) They are broken to pieces with hammers and

spread over the road in deep beds, forming a hard and even surface, upon which the wheels of carriages make no impression. The roads are now wider, kept in good repair, and not deep, notwithstanding the season. The post-horses excellent, and post-boys riding, instead of sitting. Our rate of travelling does not exceed six miles an hour, stoppages included; but we might go faster if we desired it. We meet with very few post-chaises, but a great many stage-coaches, mails, &c. and enormous broad waggons. The comfort of the inns is our incessant theme at night, the pleasure of it is not yet worn out.'

The concise sketch of Bath is correct; it is the paradise of invalid men and women, whose most important occupation is playing at whist. There is more good architecture at Bath in private buildings than in any town in the world. There was, however, a great deformity in one of the squares a few years since, which may still exist. A small obelisk stood in the centre, about thirty feet high. The ground had been raised so as to bury up the pedestal, and the taper shaft grew up through the grass, not unlike a young shoot of asparagus. The wit about the river, which is not without foundation, recalls to mind another jest. A Frenchman remarked to an Englishman at Paris while looking at the Seine, 'you have no such river as this at London.'—'No, replied the other, we had, but we filled it up,' (meaning Shoreditch.)

'*January.* The weather is called here very cold (20° or 22° of the thermometer of Fahrenheit :) the serpentine river is covered with skaiters, some of them first rate ones. Ladies crowd to contemplate the human form divine—strength, grace, and manly beauty. There is certainly much to admire in this respect in the class of gentlemen in England, which is not only handsomer, but stronger than the labouring class both of town and country. It appears to me that it was the reverse in France, and that gentlemen in general were rather inferiour in bodily faculties to countrymen and town labourers. This difference may be ascribed to the practice of athletick amusements being much more general in England—much more a part of education; and to the circumstance of the young men being introduced later to the society of women in England than in France. That society, when of the modest sort, induces sedentary habits—and when otherwise, has still worse consequences.

A taste for the country might also serve to account for this fact : a taste at least for those amusements which are only found in the country—sporting, fishing, and horses. The fashionable part of the town is deserted one half of the year, and this half not at all the pleasantest one ; but that of the shortest days, the darkest sky, and the coldest weather—that is to say, all winter till March ; spending all the spring, which is said to be very beautiful in England, but is not the season of field sports, amidst the dust and smoke of London. Such is the kind of attraction which is here found in the country.

'Westminster Abbey is seen to advantage from the parks, its Gothick towers rising above the summits of the trees. The Palace of St. James, situated at the entrance of the park of that name, is a paltry looking building of the meanest possible appearance, and half consumed by fire ; it is impossible to conceive any thing worse of the palace kind. We are apt to lend form and colour to those objects of which we have always heard, but have never seen ; and I own I had built in my mind a very different sort of palace for the Court of St. James's—so rich and so proud. This royal residence was erected by Henry VIII.'

The constant habit of manly exercises, field sports, riding, walking, &c. is the cause of the athletick make and general fine appearance of the *gentlemen* of England, as is more than once remarked by the author. The comparative indolence of young men in America, and the exhausting, brutalizing use of tobacco, are the causes of their inferiour appearance. It may be asserted, that on an average an English gentleman takes three times as much exercise, as an American one. And we fear that of all parts of the United States, there is none where manly exercise is less taken, and the consequences more visible, than in Boston. How few of our young men are in the habit of riding on horseback, and as to walking ! a walk of three or four miles is apt to excite their surprise, and a feeling of something like degradation at being seen on foot off the pavement.

'*February* 17. We have been a whole month in London, and for the last three weeks I have set down nothing in this journal. It is not as might be supposed, from having been too much taken up, or too little. A French traveller once remarked sagaciously, that there is a malady peculiar to the climate of England, called the *catch cold* ;

this malady, under the modern title of influenza, has recently afflicted all London, and we have been attacked by it. A friend of ours, who had come to London on purpose to receive us, has been obliged to fly precipitately : others dare not come. The letters we brought have not procured many useful or agreeable acquaintances—some of them have not been followed by the slightest act of politeness ; and although we have to acknowledge the attention of some persons, their number is very small, and we feel alone in the crowd. London is a giant—strangers can only reach his feet. Shut up in our apartments, well warmed, and well lighted, and where we seem to want nothing but a little of that immense society in the midst of which we are suspended, but not mixed, we have full leisure to observe its outward aspect and general movements, and listen to the roar of its waves, breaking around us in measured time, like the tides of the ocean !

> " Tis pleasant through the loop-holes of retreat
> To peep at such a world—to see the stir
> Of the great Babel, and not feel the crowd ;
> To hear the roar she sends through all her gates
> At a safe distance."

'In the morning all is calm,—not a mouse stirring before ten o'clock ; the shops then begin to open. Milk-women, with their pails perfectly neat, suspended at the two extremities of a yoke, carefully fitted to shape the shoulders, and surrounded with small tin measures of cream, ring at every door, with reiterated pulls to hasten the maid-servants, who come half asleep to receive a measure as big as an egg, being the allowance of a family ; for it is necessary to explain that milk is not here either food or drink, but a tincture—an elixir exhibited in drops five or six at most, in a cup of tea morning and evening. It would be difficult to say what taste or what quality these drops may impart ; but so it is, and nobody thinks of questioning the propriety of the custom. Not a single carriage,—not a cart are seen passing. The first considerable stir is the drum and military musick of the guards, marching from their barracks to Hyde Park, having at their head three or four negro giants, striking, high, gracefully, and strong the resounding cymbal. About three or four o'clock the fashionable world gives some signs of life, issuing forth to pay visits,

or rather leave cards at the door of their friends, never seen but in the crowd of assemblies ; to go to shops, see sights, or lounge in Bond-street, an ugly, inconvenient street, the attractions of which it is difficult to understand. At five or six they return home to dress for dinner. The streets are then lighted from one end to the other, or rather edged on either side with two long lines of little brightish dots, indicative of light, but yielding in fact very little ;—these are the lamps. They are not suspended in the middle of the streets as at Paris, but fixed on irons eight or nine feet high, ranged along the houses. The want of reflectors is probably the cause of their giving so little light. From six to eight the *noise* of wheels increases ; it is the dinner hour. A multitude of carriages with two eyes of flame staring in the dark before each of them, shake the pavement and the very houses, following and crossing each other at full speed. Stopping suddenly, a footman jumps down, runs to the door, and lifts the heavy knocker—gives a great knock—then several smaller ones in quick succession—then with all his might, flourishing as on a drum, with an art and an air, and a delicacy of touch, which denote the quality, the rank, and the fortune of his master.

'For two hours, or nearly, there is a pause ; at ten a *redoublement* comes on. This is the great crisis of dress, noise, and of rapidity—a universal hubbub ; a sort of uniform grinding and shaking, like that experienced in a great mill with fifty pair of stones ; and if I was not afraid of appearing to exaggerate, I should say that it came upon the ear like the fall of Niagara, heard at two miles distance ! This crisis continues undiminished till twelve or one o'clock ; then less and less during the night,—till at the approach of light a single carriage is heard now and then at a great distance.

'Great assemblies are called routs or parties ; but the people who give them, in their invitations only say, that they will be *at home* such a day, and this some weeks beforehand. The house in which this takes place is frequently stripped from top to bottom ; beds, drawers, and all but ornamental furniture is carried out of sight, to make room for a crowd of well-dressed people, received at the door of the principal apartment by the mistress of the house standing, who smiles at every new comer with a look of

acquaintance. Nobody sits. There is no conversation, no cards, no musick, only elbowing, turning and winding from room to room: then at the end of a quarter of an hour, escaping to the hall door to wait for the carriage, spending more time upon the threshold among footmen, than you had done above stairs with their masters. From this rout you drive to another, where after waiting your turn to arrive at the door, perhaps half an hour, the street being full of carriages, you alight, begin the same round and end it in the same manner. The publick knows there is a party in a house by two signs; first an immense crowd of carriages before the house,—then every curtain and every shutter of every window wide open, shewing apartments in a blaze of light with heads innumerable black or white, (powdered or not,) in continual motion. This custom is so general, that having a few days ago, five or six persons in the evening with us, we observed our servant had left the windows thus exposed, thinking no doubt, that this was a rout after our fashion.

'Such may be, it will be said, the life of the rich, the well-born and the idle, but it cannot be that of many of the people; of the commercial part for instance, of this emporium of the trade of the universe. The trade of London is carried on in the east part of the town, called, *par excellence, the city.* The west is inhabited by people of fashion, or those who wish to appear such; and the line of demarkation, north and south, runs through Soho Square. Every minute of longitude east, is equal to as many degrees of gentility *minus,* or towards west *plus.* This meridian line north and south, like that indicated by the compass, inclines west towards the north, and east towards the south, two or three points, in such a manner, as to place a certain part of Westminster on the side of fashion; the Parliament house, Downing street, and the Treasury are necessarily genteel. To have a right to emigrate from east to west, it is requisite to have at least 3000*l* sterling a year; should you have less, or at least spend less, you might find yourself slighted, and 6000*l* a year would be safer. Many, indeed, have a much narrower income, who were born there; but city emigrants have not the same privileges. The legitimate people of fashion affect poverty, even to distinguish themselves from the rich intruders.

It is citizen-like to be at ease about money, and to pay readily on demand.'

This description of the noise and routine of the west part of the town is given accurately. The rattling and bustle for so many hours of the night, may appear exaggerated to those who have never witnessed it, still it is a faithful picture. Of all senseless and tiresome amusements, an English rout stands foremost; it has but one single recommendation, and even this to most people would be the very reverse, which is a crowd. Like the clown, that could not see the city for the houses, no one can be seen here for the crowd; there is no conversation, no musick, no refreshments, and not even the possibility of sitting down. It is not wonderful that men should be reluctant to go to them, women, as the author observes elsewhere, are three times as numerous.

In speaking of customs at table, he observes, p. 47, that among polite people the awkward custom of drinking healths all round the table, is abolished, as indeed it cannot be done now, since introductions of the company to each other are not common.—'This custom of introducing is losing ground 'every day; and in fact, the height of fashion is to banish 'every thing like *gêne* and ceremony. This is certainly 'very well; but some people go a little farther, and under 'pretence of ease, every appearance of mutual good-will is ex-'cluded. Voltaire has said somewhere, "*qui n'est que juste* 'est dur." I would add, *qui n'est que franc est brutal.* True 'politeness, I presume, is merely benevolence in small 'things, which costs so little, and requires so few sa-'crifices, that it is not worth while to dispense with it. 'When politeness promises no more, it is consistent with 'perfect sincerity. The manners of those who have that 'sort of politeness, resemble each other in all countries, 'while the arbitrary politeness of fashion is more local. Fashionable people in England are very apt to be inso-'lent—in France probably impertinent.'

There is much just reflection in these remarks, and the conclusion is perfectly true. The tone of manners in England is often embarrassing to a stranger, there is so much coldness, so little officiousness, so much reserve, and so little sympathy, that the situation when new is often irksome, and a foreigner unaccustomed to such reception is apt to fancy that, which is the general practice, to be peculiarly di-

rected against him. Nothing can be more agreeable than a well-bred tone of perfect ease, and absence of ceremony, even though it borders on careless indifference, when it is exercised among acquaintance. But it is often, in the case of strangers, carried too far: and the coarse imitations of this style of society, that are too frequently met with, are downright rudeness and vulgarity. This fashion of leaving every one wholly to themselves, is sometimes not unlike a kind of coffee-house intercourse. People not being introduced to each other, it happens that this is often a plea for neglect, and a stranger may find himself at a gentleman's table, where an address to his neighbour whom he has never seen before, will be met very much in the manner it would be in a publick room. At a coffee-house it will often happen that two persons, gentlemen at least in appearance, may dine at the same table, each his separate dinner, drink their bottle each, and rise without ever saying a word to each other. This could happen in no other country in the world. A foreigner requires practice to assume these habits, but after a few twitches of the nerves, which his experience may cost him, he adapts himself to the manners he finds. Indeed it may be taken as a general truth, we speak now of society in London and the watering places, that every Englishman is suspicious of one of two things in his meeting with every face he does not know; either that his rank or his pocket will suffer, and this suspicion produces a universal tone of negative defiance. Of course this feeling often shewn from inferiours to superiours, without their knowing them to be so, is fruitful of ridiculous situations.

Under this head we may relate an anecdote which, though rather a peculiar case, yet is characteristick of much of fashionable life. A gentleman was invited by a lady to an evening party; he went, paid his compliments to her, was introduced to no one, knew no person in the room, and of course was very soon completely abandoned to himself. He after a time entered into a conversation with a gentleman standing rather solitary by the fire place. He enquired of him the names of several persons, to all of which he received a similar though polite answer, that he did not know them. The other then told him, Sir you seem to be in the same situation with myself, and as it is some what dull here, suppose we should go to a coffee-house together and take a bottle of wine to get rid of the even-

ing. The other remarked that he should be very happy to accept his proposal, but if he went out, it might be observed and appear strange, as it was—his own house!

'I have been carried to one of the Hospitals of this great town, supported by voluntary contributions. I shall relate what I saw. The physician, seated at a table in a large hall on the ground floor, with a register before him, ordered the door to be opened; a crowd of miserable objects, women, pushed in, and ranged themselves along the wall; he looked in his book and called them to him successively, Such a one! The poor wretch leaving her wall, crawled to the table. "How is your catarrh?" "Please your honour, no offence I hope, it is the asthma. I have no rest night nor day, and"—"Ah, so it is the asthma; it is somebody else who has the catarrh. Well, you have been ordered to take, &c."—"Yes, Sir, but I grow worse and worse, and"—"That is nothing, you must go on with it."—"But, Sir, indeed I cannot."—"Enough, enough, good woman, I cannot listen to you any more; many patients to get through this morning,—never do to hear them talk,—go and take your draught, &c." The catarrh woman made way for a long train of victims of consumption, cases of fever, dropsy, scrofula, and some disorders peculiar to women, detailed without any ceremony, before young students. This melancholy review of human infirmities, was suddenly interrupted by the unexpected entrance of a surgeon, followed by several young men, carrying a piece of bloody flesh on a dish. "A curious case," they exclaimed, placing the dish on the table; "an ossification of the lungs! such a one, who died yesterday,—just opened. This is the state of his lungs. See these white needles like fishbones, shooting through here and there;—most curious indeed." Then they handled, and cut open, and held up between the eye and the light, these almost palpitating remains of a creature who breathed yesterday. The symptoms of his disorder, and the circumstances of his death, were freely talked over, and accurately described in the hearing of the consumptive patients, who felt, I dare say, the bony needles pricking their own lungs at every breath they drew, and seemed to hear their own sentence of death pronounced.

'The women being despatched, twenty or thirty male spectres came in, and underwent the same sort of summary examination. The only case I recollect was, that of a man

attacked with violent palpitations, accompanied with great pain in the shoulders. His heart was felt beating hard through the sternum, or even under the ribs on the *right* side. His heart has moved from its place! The unhappy man thrown back on an armchair—his breast uncovered—pale as death—fixed his fearful eyes on the physicians, who successively came to feel the pulsations of the breast, and reason on the cause. They seemed to me to agree among themselves, that the heart had been pushed on one side by the augmentation of the bulk of the viscera; and that the action of the aorta was impeded thereby. The case excited much attention, but no great appearance of compassion. They reasoned long on the cause without adverting to the remedy till after the patient had departed, when he was called back from the door and cupping prescribed!

'The medical men next proceeded to visit the resident patients. I followed. The apartments were clean and spacious, and the sick not crowded, which is no doubt of the greatest importance. I was shocked, however, with the same appearance of insensibility and precipitation.

> Là le long de ces lits où gémit le malheur,
> Victimes des secours plus que de la douleur,
> L'ignorance en courant fait sa ronde homicide,
> L'indifference observe at le hasarde décide.

There is, however, more indifference than ignorance here; for in no part of the world, is the art of medicine carried farther than in London; and without being at all qualified to judge, the mere circumstance of this art and those who practice it, being so much more respected here, than in France, is sufficient to convince me of their superiority. In France surgery is honoured, while medicine is slighted. Moliere has much to answer for this; and if Shakespeare had taken it into his head to laugh at physicians, there is no knowing how they would fare in England at this day.' p. 75.

This account is a little severe, the dissection part of it was disgusting cruelty to the wretched patients around. A certain degree of indifference is engendered by familiarity with any scenes; but the harshness towards the patients was perhaps rather apparent than real, and a degree of severity in decision may become necessary. A spectator, unaccustomed to such sights, who sees a hospital or a battle, may be appalled at the accumulation of so much suffering,

and be disposed to accuse the actors of more cruelty, than they really deserve.

The following are some very just reflections on the English Theatre.

'The crude trash of these popular plays affords a fair sample of the whole modern British stage, which is rather below the level of the exhibitions at fairs, which I recollect having seen in France twenty or thirty years ago. They made me laugh sometimes, and might do so still; and far from an unwillingness to yield to risibility, it is always a great comfort to me, when I happen to find, that I am not quite a stranger to that most valuable faculty of our species. But really, if it was ever wise to have been ashamed of having laughed at any thing, there might be some reason here. Voltaire said, that the language of English comedy is the language of debauchery, not of politeness. Muralt ascribes the corruption of manners in London to comedy as its chief cause; he says, it is like that of no other country; the school in which the youth of both sexes familiarize themselves with vice, never represented there as vice, but as gayety. As for comedies, says Diderot, they have none; they have instead satires, full indeed of gayety and strength, but without morals, and without delicacy. We have, finally, the opinion of Lord Kaimes, who observes, that if the comedies of Congreve did not rack him with remorse in his last moments, he must have been lost to all sense of virtue.

'For myself, however, I must confess, that I have hitherto seen no very bad morals on the stage—but a great deal of very bad taste. There is on the contrary, in most modern plays, fine speeches about virtue and patriotism, brought in head and shoulders, and always vigorously applauded. This does credit to the moral sense of the publick: but I own I should like to see on the stage, something of these satires so full of strength and gaiety, of which Diderot speaks, and be introduced to that reprobate Congreve. "The bad taste which precedes good taste," said Horace Walpole, "is preferable to that which follows." The dramatick genius of the English *franchit les distances*, without intermediate degrees. The English do not indeed defend their comedy; they acknowledge that the best are coarse and indelicate, and for many years that nothing has appeared that is not below mediocrity. The theatre they

say, is almost entirely abandoned by the upper ranks of society, the taste for the stage is lost. It seems to me a misfortune; for good comedy is a pastime more rational and amusing, than the insipid evenings of which I have given an account above.' p. 102.

'England has just lost Mr. Windham. His death has been marked as his life was, with the originality of his character. He would undergo a cruel operation, against the advice of medical men, and prepared himself with great courage, and a perfect knowledge of the danger, as appears by the letters he wrote, to be delivered in case of his death. It afforded probably the only chance for his life. Mr. Windham has left a voluminous diary, which will be given to the publick some time or other. This illustrious man has excited so general an interest, that it became necessary in the last days of his illness, to satisfy the publick by a daily bulletin. His sins are now forgiven, and all parties agree in doing justice to his perfect disinterestedness, his frankness, his generosity, his courage, his profound contempt of mere popularity, his knowledge, and eloquence. He leaves behind him no reputation equal to his; but he leaves many men capable of being more solidly useful than he was; and the state loses only a brilliant ornament. His fortune was about 6000 pounds a year, and all from patrimony, not acquired.' p. 160.

'After spending three days agreeably at Bury St. Edmonds, we continued our journey towards London by Cambridge. I am inclined to think English society pleasantest out of London. There is more leisure—as much information, and manners equally good; for nobody is provincial in this country. You meet no where with those persons, who never were out of their native place, and whose habits are wholly local; nobody above poverty, who has not visited London once in his life; and most of those who can, visit it once a year. To go up to town from 100 to 200 miles distance, is a thing done on a sudden, and without any previous deliberation. In France, the people of the Provinces used to make their will before they undertook such an expedition. Cultivation of mind, and elegance of manners, are more conspicuous comparatively among women than among men. There is more difference between the women of this country and those I have seen elsewhere, than between the men of the same

countries respectively. The men appear to me less universal than they were in France, formerly at least; but they know better what they do know. They are less apt to say every thing which comes into their heads, they think before they speak, they have less vanity and more pride.—This is wise and respectable, but does not form perhaps a state of society very amusing. The women are no less remarkable for their discretion and reserve; but it is the reserve of modesty instead of that of pride; not voluntary and insurmountable. Commercial communications and exchanges are not better established here, or upon an easier and more convenient footing, than mental ones. Science, anecdotes, politicks, fashions even the most frivolous, every thing that can interest the mind of all descriptions of persons who have any mind at all, circulates through its appropriate channel, day by day, week by week, or quarter by quarter, to the remotest corner of the country, as regularly and as abundantly as in London. Every body finds on his table at stated days and hours, the Newspaper, the Journal, or the Review, to which he subscribes; and if he cannot afford to subscribe, he will at least find all these things at the circulating Library, the reading-room, or the book club of the next little town or village. He will know exactly, let his life be otherwise ever so obscure and solitary, what is going on, at least in Parliament, at the opera: what routs, births, death, marriages, and elopements have taken place among people of consequence. Deeper works will give him the spirit and criticism of most literary novelties, or abstruse, edifying and amusing subjects. Novels in shoals will finally serve to fill up any portion of his time, and his whole life, if he pleases, with every variety of sentimental distresses and pleasures the human faculties are capable of feeling. Poetry is so happily cultivated in England, the present generation particularly has produced so many admirable specimens of it, that the feelings it imparts are become familiar. Women, with more time, more curiosity, and livelier feelings than men, know better how to avail themselves of these opportunities; and the tincture of science, and literature, and of every accomplishment forming the habitual state, is in general unmixed with pedantry. It is an every day dress which they are at ease in, and does not unfit them for the common business of life, and the duties of their station. I do not know whether this light

and easy regimen is, generally speaking, calculated to form strong and original constitutions of mind; such however, thrive under any management, when the germ and power is in us: and England of all countries in the world, shews the least signs of mental feeblenes and enervation among its inhabitants.' p. 185.

We find here, that we must either omit many of the extracts which we had selected from this work, or some observations we intended to make from the recollections they suggested to us; and as it is necessary to make a choice, we have no hesitation in sacrificing our own remarks, to introduce larger portions of this very entertaining and rational observer's travels. There are some of his opinions in which we cannot entirely join; but we admire the author's good sense and dispassionate mode of observing. We have taken the extracts from various topicks, and would with pleasure have made them more numerous. We have however selected enough to give every reader a wish to peruse the work.

'As we get farther from London, I think I perceive more moderation in political opinions: fewer people speak of revolution, either to wish or fear it, or believe the people ripe for it. The party of which Cobbett is the mouthpiece, does not appear numerous out of the capital. The masterly caricatures of this Hogarth of the pen, so well known in America, are quite characteristick of the manners and government of England. Foreigners who read some of the party publications which swarm from the English press, and particularly Cobbett, conceive certainly very erroneous opinions of the real state of things. I believed in America with many others, and I know that several persons at the head of the American government believe now, that England is on the eve of a revolution, which it is supposed will free them from her maritime pretensions; and if it is possible to be so deceived in a country so similar to England, what must it be in France, where no adequate idea can be formed of party exaggeration. Far from taking these party writers literally, I find the greatest part of the English publick look upon them only as professed wrestlers, whose display of strength and abilities interests and amuses them, but whose object, besides the gratification of some malice and vanity, is merely money. They are not believed sincere, and without that belief there is no real persuasion. To be

fully sensible of this it is sufficient to observe, with how much more attention the simple charge of the judge is listened to at the close of a trial, than all the eloquent pleadings that preceded it. Mixed with abundance of undeniable facts, and under the garb of downright truth and honest surliness, Mr. Cobbett deals out principles the most fallacious, with great art, and wonderful force of popular eloquence; but his frequent and outrageous contradictions of his own principles have, in a great degree, neutralized them. He is to receive judgment this day, having been tried for a libel, with intention to excite the troops to mutiny.

'There is not another government in Europe who could long withstand the attacks to which this is continually exposed. The things published here would set on fire any other heads in the world; but either from insensibility, reason, or habit, they make but little impression. This sort of insensibility extends in some degree to personal attacks. Private anecdotes and secret stories are brought to light daily, of such a nature as ought to make the individuals concerned so ashamed to show themselves, as absolutely to drive them from society for the rest of their lives. Nothing of the kind:—the neck is no sooner out of the pillory, and the shoulders hardly healed after the castigation administered by the hands of newspaper writers, and other practitioners in the art of abuse and invective, than the person appears in the world as if nothing had happened. It is strange, that a people so proud, and certainly full as moral as their neighbours, should show this strange callousness.' p. 202.

'*July* 27. On our way from St. Asaph's to Denbigh, we stopped at the house of a gentleman we had seen in Norfolk; he was not at home, but one of the ladies of the family accompanied us to Denbigh. From this house the view takes in the whole valley of Clwydd, (pronounced Cluid) 20 or 30 miles long, and about 6 broad, with hills of moderate and irregular height on each side. A great number of gentlemen's houses were in sight, with their usual accompaniments of wood and lawn, but no cottages,—I mean real dwellings of the poor. If there ever was here a revolution *a la Francoise*, declaring *guerre aux chateaux, paix aux chaumieres*, the castles would certainly carry it, being a hundred to one. This general appearance of the country, brings to my mind a bon mot of Carlin, the famous harle-

quin. 'Quel dommage que le pere Adam ne se soit pas avisé d'acheter une charge de Secretaire du Roi—nous serions tous nobles!' I do not know what office the Father Adam of England bought, but every body in it seems rich. Whenever I have asked proprietors of land, or farmers, why they did not build houses for their labourers, the answer has generally been, that such houses are nests of vermin, pilferers, and poachers; and that far from building, they would rather pull down such houses. The labourers reside in some small town or village in the neighbourhood. Denbigh, for instance, has doubled in extent within a few years by this accession of inhabitants. Labourers have often several miles to walk to and from their work, which is so much out of their labour or out of their rest. This, I own, has lowered a little my ideas of universal felicity, which the appearance of this country encourages one to form. There are then it seems obscure corners, where the poor are swept out of the way, as the dust of the walks of the rich, in a heap out of their sight; and, to judge properly of this general prosperity, it would be necessary to see what passes in these abodes of the labouring class.' p. 221.

'This is a town (Edinburgh) of 90 or 100,000 inhabitants,* the tenth part of London, in three distinct divisions; the old and the new town, side by side, with the wide ditch between; then the port (seaport) at about a mile distance, on the Frith of Forth. The shops, tradesmen and labourers are mostly in the old town. The college is there also, but learning begins to be attracted by politeness, and the professors come to live in the region of good dinners and fine ladies. From a height (Calton Hill) in the new town, which overlooks the dark, dull and dirty assemblage of the old houses of the old town, strangers are shewn with a mixture of pride and pity, the back of the humble abode of Adam Smith, and the place where he composed, walking to and fro, his work on the Wealth of Nations. Not far off is the house inhabited lately by another celebrated professor, but, who happily for his country, has not taken his place yet among the great men who are no more,

'The environs of Edinburgh as well as the scite on which it is built, present accidents of high geological interest;

* In 1687, Edinburgh had only 20,000 inhabitants. It is an increase nearly equal to our American cities.

masses of rocks protruding the soil, rise abruptly to great heights. Calton Hill, already mentioned in the new town, is three hundred and fifty feet high; the rock of the castle in the old town about as much; and close to the town Arthur's seat about eight hundred feet high. In the space of two or three miles, south and west, the surrounding country is *herissé* with eight or ten similar protuberances, each four or five hundred feet high. These masses are of a basaltick nature, and assume in many places the prismatick form ordinary to that substance. These rocks are less interesting to the painter than to the naturalist, they do not unite well with the country, and are either too uniform or too grotesque.

'This is in every respect a singular town. The new part is placed in the middle of a beautiful and fertile country, without suburbs or shabby approach, like other towns which have grown by degrees. This one was cast in a mould,—created all at once, within the memory of half its inhabitants; for when this fine bridge which now unites the two towns, was built in 1769, the new town did not exist, or only three or four houses of it. Houses are shewn in the old town, where persons of the first consequence lived, not a great many years ago, now only deemed fit for the lowest tradesmen or labourers. I find in the statistical progress of the capital of Scotland, by Sir John Sinclair, comparing its state in the year 1763 and 1793, several very curious facts. Lord Drummore's house was left by a chairman for want of accommodation; that of the duke of Douglas is now occupied by a wheelwright; Oliver Cromwell once lived in the late gloomy chamber of the Sheriff's clerk; the great marquis of Argyle's house was possessed by a hosier, at the rent of twelve pounds per annum. These facts indicate a great revolution in the manner of life of all ranks of people—a revolution which most people of an advanced age deplore—which the new generation exults in;—and which has its advantages and disadvantages; the former, however, undoubtedly preponderate. There cannot be any great harm in having a little more space and cleanliness in their dwellings; in spending their evenings at plays and concerts rather than at taverns; in dining at the hour when they used to sup, and using umbrellas in a country where it rains so often.' p. 266.

'*Sept.* 1. To Killin, only twenty-one miles to-day, through much the same sort of country as yesterday; glen after glen—green and bare and deserted, with towering hills all round; one of them seemed to have the form of an immense crater—a hollow cup—but all the detached masses below were granite and schistus, and nothing volcanick. Beautiful pieces of quartz lay about every where. Some of the hills could not be less than two thousand feet high. The Tay, an inconsiderable mountain torrent, descended with us the whole day. The question occurs naturally in traversing these solitudes, where are the men? where are the Highlanders? and if you are told that the system of sheep farming has banished them from their country, then you would be apt to ask where are the sheep? Very few indeed are seen; the grass is evidently not half eaten down—hardly touched indeed, in many places. We met to-day, however, with several habitations, and we entered some of them; a small present was willingly received, and served as a passport to our curiosity. The only door is common to men and beasts, and of course very dirty. You see as you come in, on one side, a small stable, which seems very unnecessary, since in the much more rigorous climate of North America, cattle have commonly no shelter in winter. The other side is separated by a rough partition; this is the dwelling-place of the family; you find in it not a chimney, but a fire-place on the ground, with a few stones round it, immediately under a hole in the roof; a hook and a chair fastened to a stick, to hang an iron kettle on; a deal table; a piece of board on which oat cakes are prepared; a dresser with some little earthen ware; an old press; a pickling tub for mutton; some pieces of mutton hung in the smoke, which winds round them on its way to the roof; a shelf with many cheeses, and among the cheeses a few books. The title of one of them was, 'Searmona le Mr. Eobhanu Mac Diarmud, ministeir ann in Glascho, agus na Dheigh sinancornu. Duneidin du Bhuaiste le Islenau 1814.' Another was a catechism, also in the Erse or Gaelick, and a Bible in English. The beds were a filthy matrass, and a filthy blanket,—no sheets, no floor—only the ground trodden hard: a window of four small panes, not one entire. Such is the interiour; and to finish the picture of these hovels, each has its ladder against the roof; either to stop the progress of fire, when the thatch happens to catch, or

a leak, which they do by means of a few sods. Some of the roofs bore a luxuriant crop of grass. This is abject poverty, or at least appears so; yet these people feel no want, and enjoy health, which is more than many do who are rich. Their poverty does not seem to extend to food, for they have plenty of fish from their lakes and rivers; and one acre of potatoes can feed a family. They have also a small field of oats; meat is not probably very scarce near such flocks of sheep, and I saw hogs to-day. Fuel is at their door. Labour is paid 2s. 6d. or 3s. a day. With such means of subsistence, I do not understand what the Highlanders gain by migrating to America. With some labour they can procure here, what is not to be had there without labour. There are schools here every where; children learn to read in English and Erse; but the last language alone is in common use.' p. 303.

'The day was very fine, an uncommon circumstance, and the sun setting in full splendour, spread over the wonderful landscape of Loch Katrine its richest tints, "one burnished sheet of living gold."

'Returning through the Trosacks, they appeared to more advantage; and we remarked a narrow and wild pass on the left, along the base of Benledi, which we pronounced to be the very spot of the ambuscade of Rhoderick Dhu,—the whole scene between him and Fitz James was before us. I wish it was possible to convey in the French language, something of the beauty of this description, unparalleled for vigour and truth of painting,—for simple, energetick and just expression,—for generosity and heroism of sentiments, and even for strength of reasoning. But, in translating into French verse, you must submit to lose the poetry—if into prose the harmony of the original; and although there can be no hesitation in the choice, yet it is a great deal to lose. The mechanical harmony of verse, is to the sense, exactly what harmony in musick is to melody. True poets in France write in prose. First among them I should certainly name Jean Jaques Rousseau, who wrote nothing legible in verse; the author of Paul and Virginia—of Telemaque—of Corinne. If poetry was only what the dictionary of the academy calls it, *l'art de faire des ouvrages en vers*, or according to Johnson's definition, *metrical composition*, then indeed these writers were no poets. But they were eminently so, if poetry is the art of

exciting the imagination, either by a representation of material objects, or by an imitation of the language of our passions and our affections, and in doing this with the truth of nature, in a manner that all may feel who are capable of feeling;—awakening the dormant powers of the mind to new ideas and sentiments, and giving them an impulse which goes further than the written thought, as fire is kindled by a spark. This idea was most happily expressed in the Edinburgh Review of Campbell's Gertrude of Wyoming. 'The highest delight, which poetry produces, does not arise from the mere passive perception of the images or sentiments which it presents to the mind, but from the excitement which is given to its own internal activity, and the character which is impressed on the train of its spontaneous conceptions: and the true lover of poetry is often indebted to his author for little more than the first impulse, or the key note of a melody, which his fancy makes out for itself.'

'A work of genius often fixes the attention of the reader less than a merely good work, and not more than a bad one, although from a very different cause. The mind is carried away from the ideas and sentiments expressed in the first, by those it suggests, it slumbers over the last, and gives its full and undivided attention to the second.

'The Poetry of almost all foreign nations is different from the French; and those who are acquainted with the latter only, can scarcely form an idea of what is meant by poetry—that wondrous art of awakening the mind to strong emotions, by happy expressions, and words of magick import, arranged in measured and harmonious lines;—of fixing as they pass some few of those fleeting, nameless thoughts, that swell the heart and dim the eyes; and as the crowd of strange forms, creatures of another world, and deeds of hands unseen, rush on the mind like a mighty torrent, of snatching a few drops from the hurrying stream, and giving a colour and a name to the invisible creation.

'I have often wondered at the very great inferiority of all translations of works of imagination. Thoughts, it seems, which are not mere matter of fact, or simple deductions from facts, owe more to the manner of expressing them, than to their own intrinsick merit. To say differently, but equally well, what has been happily said before, "is often difficult and frequently impossible, even in the same language." "*Credunt homines*" said Bacon, "*rationem*

suam, verbis imperare, sed fit etiam, ut verba vim suam super rationem retorqueant." ' *p.* 325.

The amusements and way of life in Edinburgh are, as may be supposed, as close an imitation of the manners and fashions of London, as relative circumstances of wealth, numbers, &c. can admit. London is the head quarters of trade, of financial operations, and the focus of factions. Edinburgh is not only a stranger to trade and money matters, but the only political party there is the party of obedience and loyalty. There are whigs, and I am told that the majority of the legal and the literary men are of that party, but moderately so. You meet with few of the downright reformers among the good company of Edinburgh, and more among the lower people. A jacobin Tradesman is here a phenomenon, and the individual generally a man of bad private character. I know this from a person distinguished in that party; he said the common people were all tories—that among them, *whiggism was rank democracy.* You hear as little here about political traffick, as about commercial traffick; nothing is either bought or sold; none of those vile passions which elsewhere disfigure society have here an aliment. People live in comparative mediocrity, without fear of losing what they have, or much hope of improving their fortune otherwise than by prudence and economy;—those who thirst for riches must seek them elsewhere. The result of all this is a certain general impression of peace and tranquillity, very striking to strangers; but this repose is not slumber,—a pursuit of different interest remains, literature and the sciences which are cultivated with zeal and success. As to what is called pleasure, there are here assemblies in the London style made as numerous as possible; but notwithstanding the efforts of a laudable emulation, the inhabitants of London being as ten to one, Edinburgh routs cannot, by the nature of things, arrive at a perfection of crowds equal to those of the capitol. It is often possible to sit and converse; cards, and even chess, are not quite excluded—you find generally one or two tables, with the pamphlets of the day, rare and valuable books carelessly heaped up; prints, drawings, and even children's play things, which some are glad to take hold of, by way of appearing amused, when they are least disposed to be so. The piano is another play-thing upon which a young and pretty hand is seen, but little listened to. I have observed that

in these numerous assemblies, musick is the signal for a general *dechainement* of tongues; even those who were silent before, talk then, by the same sort of secret sympathy which swells the notes of the Canary bird in his cage to overpower conversation. A circle is formed round the instrument—people press about the performer, talking *a qui mieux mieux*. It is indeed most true, that nine times out of ten, the performer and her instrument produce at best but a harmonious noise:—the more execution the less musick. The hours are less late here than in London; they do not quite turn the night into day. Day indeed is little more than nominal: at 12 o'clock the sun is so low, that the shadow of the houses across a very wide street, although only three stories high, cover the first story of the opposite side. There were people of quality in Greece at the period of its greatest luxury, who boasted that they had never seen the sun; if there is any merit in overcoming difficulties, they might have been vain of having seen it here. The climate of Scotland does indeed better without sun than any other; winter is neutralized by the surrounding sea:—the thermometer is a little below freezing in the night, just as much above in the day—there is no snow—the grass is quite green—and we have frequently calm and clear days wanting only a little duration. A fine morning, a fine evening follow each other without noon; six or seven hours of light in the twenty-four.'

'Mr. Liston, known so advantageously in the United States (where I wish for the sake of the two countries he was still ambassadour) has a very pretty residence in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, where he has planted, or rather Mrs. Liston has, an American garden full of the natives of our fields, and of our woods, to which we find some difficulty in granting that degree of consideration due to their rank of exoticks. These plants thrive remarkably well in their almost polar situation. Mr. Liston was formerly the companion of Mirabeau in a military school in France, and tells several interesting anecdotes of this celebrated personage, and has preserved some of his letters written at the age of seventeen. Good for nothing from his earliest youth, witty, turbulent, and factious, as he shewed himself afterwards, Mirabeau exposed himself frequently to merited punishment, always borne very impatiently. Once he refused obstinately to leave his place of confinement, where he

said he had been put unjustly, unless due reparation were made to him. Mr. Liston, early a negotiator, was selected to reason with him, and bring him, if possible, to his right senses. "You are destined," said he to him, "to the profession of arms in France; how can you expect to succeed with this undisciplinable spirit?" "Ah!" he answered, striking his forehead with his hand, "that is too true;—why was I not born in a country like yours: where merit needs not pay court to power, and the road to distinction lies open!" then denounced vengeance against the existing state of things in France.'

'We could not be at Edinburgh without wishing to see the Caledonian bard, whose fertile and brilliant genius produces poems with the rapidity of thought, and we have been gratified. Mr. Scott is a tall and stout man, thirty-five or forty years of age; very lame from some accident in his early youth. His countenance is not particularly poetical, complexion fair, with a coarse skin—little beard—sandy hair—and light eyes and eyebrows; the *tout ensemble* rather dull and heavy: Yet when he speaks, which he is not always disposed to do, and is animated, his eye lightens up

"With all a poet's ecstasy."

'This poet likes conviviality, and tells well, and *con amore*, such stories as are told here only after dinner. He is a great tory, and consequently a warm friend of liberty (in Spain:) a disposition, I have already observed, characteristick of his party. His disapprobation of a certain article in the Edinburgh Review, on Cevallos's book, induced him to withdraw his name from the list of subscribers. This article is, in one sense, friendly to Spanish liberty, but then not in the right sense. Mr. Scott has a valuable place, which had been promised him by the Ministry, which preceded Mr. Fox's, but he was not in possession when they went out, and some of Mr. Fox's colleagues objected to his having it, saying, it was a *job*, "It is at least a job in favour of genius," answered Mr. Fox, with that liberality and generosity which distinguished him so particularly, "it does not happen often, and is not dangerous." Mr. Scott had the place, and I hope does justice to the memory of his whig patron.' p. 368.

'The name of Newcastle is identified with that of coals, the country about containing immense strata of this mineral, which is the object of a great trade. There are farms under ground as well as on the surface, and leased separately.—I know of a subterranean farm of this kind of 5000 acres, for which 3000*l.* sterling a year is paid, and a per centage, depending on the quantity of coals extracted, which may double that rent. It is remarkable enough, that when the estate in which this mine is situated was sold, thirty years ago, the purchaser refusing to pay a certain consideration for the right of mining, this right, for which the former proprietor receives now 3000*l.* a year, possibly six or more, was reserved ; not that either party were ignorant of the existence of coals, but the steam engine was not then so generally applied to mining, and the other branches of the art had not then reached their present improved state ; the consumption likewise, was much less. Finally, what is now worth 6000*l.* a year was not deemed worth one year's purchase thirty years ago. I accepted with pleasure an invitation to descend in a coal mine. The mode is rather alarming. The extremity of the rope which works up and down the shaft being formed into a loop, you pass one leg through it, so as to sit or be almost astride on the rope : then, hugging it with both arms, you are turned off from the platform over a dark abyss, where you would hardly venture if the depth was seen. This was 63 fathoms deep (378 feet.) One of the workmen bestrode the loop by the side of me, and down we went with considerable rapidity. The wall of rock seemed to rush upwards, the darkness increased—the mouth above appeared a mere speck of light. I shut my eyes for fear of growing giddy ; the motion soon diminished, and we touched the ground. Here we stopped for two other persons. Each of us had a flannel dress, and a candle, and thus proceeded through a long passage—rock above, rock below—and a shining black wall of coal on each side ; a railway in the middle for horses, (for there are fifty or sixty horses living in this subterraneous world,) to draw two four wheel carriages, with each eight large baskets of coal ; these baskets are brought one at a time by diminutive waggons, on four little wheels, drawn or pushed by boys along other railways, coming down the side streets to this main horse-road, the ceiling of which is cut in the main rock, high enough for a man to

stand upright, while the side streets are no higher than the stratum of coals (4 1-2 feet) therefore you must walk stooping.'

'The whole extent of the mine is worked in streets, intersecting each other at right angles, 24 feet wide and 36 feet asunder, leaving therefore 36 feet every way. The miners have two enemies to contend with, air and water; that air is hydrogen gas, continually emitted by the coals, with an audible hissing noise. The contact of the lights necessary to be used would infallibly set fire to the hydrogen gas, if allowed to accumulate, and either blow up or singe the miners severely; it is therefore necessary that there should be a continual current of air going in and out by two different issues, at the beginning of the works; and while there is only one shaft, this is effected by means of a wooden partition carried down along the middle of the shaft, then along the first street opened, and so disposed afterwards, that the air which comes down the shaft on one side of the partition, may circulate successively through each and every street before it returns up the other division of the shaft, a small fire establishing and keeping up the draught. As to water, the dip or inclination of the stratum of coals being known, all the art consists in making the first shaft in the lowest part of the track; a steam engine at the top drains up the water, and draws up the coals. Wherever the shaft comes in contact with any stratum yielding water, it must be kept out by means of a drum or lining of timber, made tight round the inside of the shaft. I saw a small stream of clear water issuing from the bed below, near the stable where the horses are kept, and serving to water them. These horses are in very good order; their coats soft and glossy, like the skin of a mole; they are conveyed down, or taken out, with great care and expedition, by means of a great net or bag.'

'Some of the mines are more extensive than the city of Philadelphia, and their streets are as regular. When the whole area is thus excavated in streets, it must not be supposed that the solid blocks are abandoned; but, beginning at the furthermost extremity, the miners proceed to pull down all the blocks one after the other. When a space of two or three hundred feet square has been thus left unsupported, the ceiling of solid rock begins to sag and crack, with a hideous noise; the workmen go on notwith-

standing, trusting that the ceiling will not break down close to the blocks, but some way behind ; and such is the case ; the cracks grow wider and wider—the rock bends down, coming at last in contact with the floor, and the whole extent is thus filled up : on the surface of the ground, however, nothing is perceived ; the rocks are left to manage the business among themselves below. Houses, and stone houses too, remain standing, and their inhabitants sleep in peace all the while.' p. 58. Vol. II.

'York is an old town, and of course very ugly, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. Its Minster is one of the wonders of England, fifty feet longer than Westminster-Abbey, which is I think, five hundred and twenty feet. The main tower over the centre is heavy ; the two lesser ones are much better ; the rest of the exteriour is light and beautiful. The interiour is very striking indeed, and superiour to any thing we have yet seen ; as to boldness, lightness, and prodigious high finish of the carving—quite sharp and *à jour*. The figures introduced are in the usual barbarous grotesque style. The outside carving, originally as highly finished, having been much injured by time, is now undergoing thorough repairs, or rather an entire new facing ; the modern carving is fully equal to the old, and made like in colour by oiling the stones. Beautiful as the inside of the minster undoubtedly is, I think it less striking than the dome of St. Pauls ! the latter is something less in size, but its vast airy dome, and the wide area under it, produce a greater effect. The tower of a small Gothick Church near the minster is remarkable light and beautiful. The windows of the minster are too large, and admit too much light.

'On Sunday the Judges just arrived for the assizes, came to church *en grand costume*, with their huge powdered wigs, and black robes : but all their smartness was lost upon us, who had just seen the Scotch judges dressed in white and pink satin. The mayor and corporation swelled the train, and in the rear footmen in white liveries, and large nosegays at the buttonhole ; the whole town was in motion. The assizes in a county town are an event ; and it puts me in mind of Mad. de Stael's witty remark, "on ne s'amuse une fois, que pour découvrir que l'on s'y ennuie tous les jours." The chanting was very good, and the voices of some of the young choristers admirable, but the organist flourished too much. The same day we went to the Unita-

rian chapel, where we expected to hear Mr. W. preach; but the New-England tone and pronunciation soon informed us, that our godly instructer came from the other side of the Atlantick. Travelling as well as ourselves in this distant country, chance had thus brought us together—he to give and we to receive edification. The mode of worship of the Unitarians has the defect of being too rational; their service resembles in its extreme simplicity that of the French protestants, among whom I was born. The English sectaries have however greatly the advantage in other respects; they profess openly in perfect liberty and peace, the faith of their conscience, and sing the praises of God to the sound of the organ in their own town, while those of France were obliged to meet by stealth, in secret and lonely places. I have seen in the mountains of the Vivarrois a Protestant minister preach from the hollow trunk of an old chesnut-tree, and heard the rocks of the wilderness re-echo the psalms of King David, sung with the fervour of primitive zeal, in language piously barbarous.

'We had the pleasure of seeing here, a preacher of another sort, the Rev. S. S. who has been the delight of the devout fashionables of the capital; it is not however in this character we have known him, but in his own house, where, among his friends, he is a most agreeable companion. He has the reputation of being one of the most lively writers of the Edinburgh Review, and serious too, when he pleases. His countenance struck me as very like that of the unfortunate Louis XVI. with more vivacity in the eye.

'There is near York a retreat for lunaticks, which appears admirably managed, and almost entirely by *reason* and kindness; it was instituted by the Quakers. Most of the patients move about at liberty, without noise and disorder, and by their demure and grave deportment shew they have not quite forgotten to what sect they belong. We observed, however, in a great garden or court, some men in broad brim hats, walking about in a hurried, agitated manner, with their hands in their coat pockets, where we found at last they were confined. The lowest only of the patients are allowed to be seen: for the Quakers recognize in practice some inequalities of rank. It is impossible, however, to blame those who wish not to expose the infirmities of their friends to the idle gaze of the curious. The mistress of the house is a good-looking, portly lady, lately married to the

keeper, both Quakers. You cannot say of this couple with Moliere, "Du coté de la barbe est toute la puissance:" for all the consequence and the talents seem here on the side of the lady, and her husband appears merely her deputy. The frame of the windows is of iron, which saves the appearance of grates. Some of the patients are allowed to go out of the premises, and even to town alone. The directress told us, that having been indisposed in consequence of a fall, and some little dispute having arisen a short time afterwards with one of the female patients, the latter said to her, "I am sorry to see that since thy fall thee hast not been quite *right*, and if it should last, we shall be obliged to take care of thee!" We heard some other curious traits; I shall mention only the following. A young and stout female patient, displeased with one of the servants, threw her down on the floor, and holding her there said, "What should hinder me from strangling thee? I am mad; they could not hang me for it!"

'In fourteen years one hundred and fifty-four patients have been admitted; of which seventy-three have been cured, twenty-four have died (three by suicide) and fifty seven remain. There are more women than men. The most ordinary causes are love, religion, pride, and reverses in fortune; two of these causes apply more particularly to the sex—the other two are equally divided. I have been told by a well-informed person, born a Quaker, that there are more instances of insanity among that persuasion than among other people; the rich particularly are most exposed to this calamity. Commerce and manufactures are nearly the only professions from which Quakers do not exclude themselves; but the sons of rich merchants, caring little about trade, and almost all kinds of amusements, the Fine Arts, and certain departments of literature, falling under the same interdiction, nothing remains but *ennui*, nervousness, and at last insanity. Dr. Johnson, who was well qualified to judge of mental maladies, said of one of his friends, "He would not have drowned himself if he had known how to hem a pocket handkerchief." The circumstance of the Quakers, building this lunatick asylum entirely for themselves, recalled to my mind what happened to me once in travelling through a back settlement of America. Observing in the house of a settler an apparatus to distil spirits, I asked him how he could expect a sale for the liquor in so

remote a situation. "Oh," he answered, "it is only for family use." '

'The Rev. S. S. who accompanied us, said he understood there was an undue proportion of tailors among mad people. I would not answer that this remark was to be taken seriously. The profession has a certain degree of ridicule attached to it in England, and is obnoxious to certain jokes, which, although neither very new nor very refined, genuine mirth is not so fastidious as to disdain.

Madness appears to be fatally common in Great Britain, and among the high ranks as well as among Quakers and tailors. I have heard of three families of Scotch Dukes, in which there have been, from time to time, cases of this kind, and eleven Earls' families. My informant, who was not so well acquainted with the state of noble brains in the southern section of the Island, could not name more than three families of mad English Dukes; and the case of an illustrious personage belongs by blood rather to Scotland than to England: yet the Scotch talk of this calamity as affecting peculiarly England, seeing the mote in their brother's eye, and not the beam in their own. It has long been my opinion, said Horace Walpole, that the out pensioners of Bedlam are so numerous, that the shortest and cheapest way would be to confine in Moorfields the few that remain in their senses, who would then be safe, and let the rest go at large.' p. 66. Vol. II.

"Of its * system of education I know very little. A great historian who had spent here some years of his youth, has spoken of it very unfavourably. It was in his time little else than a monkish community, sunk in ease and indolence, and the facts disclosed in the course of a sharp controversy lately carried on between a champion of the university, and a certain illustrious literary association, tends, upon the whole, to confirm Gibbon's charges. This splendid university seems to have slumbered on since the revival of letters, ignorant or unmindful of the discoveries of modern times. It remained Aristotelian and scholastick for centuries after the rest of the world, and when it ceased to teach exploded doctrines, it taught nothing at all in their stead.

"It appears however that important changes and improvements have been introduced within a few years, and the obstacles of antiquated forms and practices once re-

* Oxford.

moved, the establishment may work its own perfect regeneration. The ancient universities of Europe, founded in the times of the universal dominion of the church of Rome, have preserved, even in Protestant countries, that languor and that pride, which the long possession of undisturbed power is apt to generate; which, at the same time that it clings to prerogative, knows not how to maintain real ascendancy. Considering the manifest state of imperfection of establishments and methods of education in general—and that of all professions, that of tutor is, perhaps, the most difficult, and the most negligently attended to, it is a matter of surprise that so many people should, after all, be well educated. But it will be found, that in general, they recommenced their education anew after it was finished, naturally and without any formed design. The grain of corn, which the unfriendly frosts of the winter have thrown out of the ground where it had been sown, strives to regain in the spring the situation it has lost, and its elevated root taking a short turn, dives back again into its genial element in search of food—but there has been a loss of time and substance, and the young plant does not always attain afterwards the full growth and maturity to which its natural constitution had destined it.' p. 113. vol. ii.

'*March* 25. London. Here we are once more, after an absence of nine months. This second first sight made much the same impression as the first. London does not strike with admiration; it is regular, clean, convenient (I am speaking of the best part,) but the site is flat; the plan monotonous; the predominant colour of objects dingy and poor. It is altogether without great faults and without great beauties. Suppose yourself in one of the best streets, it extends *à perte de vue* before you, in an undeviating straight line; the side-walks wide and smooth; every door with its stone steps, its iron railing and its lamp; one house differing from its neighbour in no one thing but the number on the door, and the name of the occupant. Turn the next corner, and you have another street as long, as wide, and as straight, and so on from street to street. At night you have eternal rows of lamps, making the straightness of the streets still more conspicuous and tiresome. This palpable immensity has something in it very heavy and stupifying. The best houses in Edinburgh are certainly very inferiour to those of the same rank in London, yet the difference of

the materials, a bright chrystallized stone, instead of dingy bricks, gives them a look of superiour consequence and cheerfulness; the variety of views also, and the proximity of the country, without the fag end of suburbs, are invaluable advantages. There is no doubt in London a greater choice of society, the best probably, and the pleasantest; but it is in general out of the reach of a stranger and of no sort of consequence to him.' p. 116. vol. ii.

'*April* 7. We went to Westminster Abbey this morning, and found it, with all its merits, inferiour to York Minster, both inside and out. The painted windows are not good; and, although I should not wish to whitewash the walls, yet I think them too dark and sooty. The chanting was very fine, and the organ accompaniment simple and beautiful. Of all human inventions to elevate the mind, and excite enthusiasm, I know of none so powerful as church musick. The place adds undoubtedly to its effect. Whatever sentiments of elevation and piety the musick might have produced, were soon unfortunately brought down to the ordinary worldly level by the sermon it was our fortune to hear. The preacher was a purple-faced, short-necked man, forcing his hollow, vulgar, insincere voice through a fat narrow passage. He told us, or rather read out of a paper in his hand, that it was wrong to wish to die, yet not right to be afraid neither; and that St. Paul taught us to keep a happy medium. Among many words he pronounced in a peculiar manner, I recollect ack*now*ledge and in*no*cence, like *no* in *no*ble, which is not unusual, I think, on the stage; per*fa*dy instead of perfidy; sun*sine* instead of sun*shine*.'

'*April* 18. Mr. West's new picture at the British Institution is all the fashion; every body goes to see it, and it is considered as his *chef d'œuvre*, after his Regulus. The society has bought the picture for three thousand pounds. The subject is Christ healing the sick. They (the sick) form the prominent part of the picture, and certainly they are, what they ought to be, very sick. But that is an effect easily produced; and it is only an exact likeness of a few wretched objects, unconnected, and passive. Christ is coming forth, his hands extended towards them all, doing good like Providence, not like a common mortal, without emotion and without effort. This may at least be fancied to have been the intention of the artist. Our Saviour

seemed to me, however, to have only the countenance of a very handsome Jew, with a clear skin, trim beard, and rather more genteel than their tribe generally are, yet not divine at all. The extended hands are delicate ;—fingers tapering to an affectation, and finically graceful ;—the colouring is bluish and cold, and the outlines of all the objects as sharp and distinct as cut tin. The only figure which struck me as fine, is that of a young man who has just laid down his dying father at the feet of Christ, and with one knee on the ground and outstretched hands, and earnest looks, seems to pray with perfect faith. The Christ of Michael Angelo, at Mr. Angerstein's, with all its defects, is far otherwise divine than this ;* and without disparagement to Mr. West's reputation, I think he might have improved his colouring by the study of Rembrandt, Vandyke or Murillo.' p. 120. v. ii.

* The Christ of Mr. Trumbull, in his picture of the Woman taken in Adultery, which I have just seen on the easel, (10th September) appears to me to approach much nearer than Mr. West's to that peculiar character of ineffable goodness and sublime meekness which belongs to our Saviour alone.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNALS.

Cambridge, by Professor Farrar.

OCTOBER, 1815.

	Barometer.			Thermometer.			Face of Sky.		Winds.	
Day.	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	7 A. M.	9 P. M.	7 A. M.	9 P. M.
1	30.02	29.90	29.92	52	76	59	Fair	Fair	N.W.1	W.
2	30.12	30.15	30.24	53	56	43	Clo.	Fair	N.E.2	W.
3	30.32	30.30	30.31	37	62	43	Fair	Fair	N.	W.
4	30.32	30.30	30.27	37	63	47	Fair	Fair	S.E.	E.
5	30.21	30.09	30.01	45	75	60	Fair	Clo.	E.	S.
6	29.96	00.10	30.16	57	68	50	Clo.	Fair	S.	W.1
7	30.35		30.30	48	58	53	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.2	E.1
8	30.11	29.90	29.84	55	62	59	Clo.	Clo.	E.	E.
9	29.78	29.77	29.90	56	63	50	Clo.	Clo.	E.	W.1
10	30.01	29.95	29.83	42	66	55	Fair	Clo.	W.1	S.W.
11	29.95	29.99	30.00	47	65	55	Clo.	Fair	W.1	W.
12	30.00	29.93	30.15	51	71	48	Fair	Fair	W.	W.1
13	30.27	30.28		42	66	44	Fair	Fair	W.	W.
14	30.33	30.34	30.26	39	65	51	Clo.	Clo.	W.	E.1
15	30.20	30.20	30.17	48	53	34	Clo.	Fair	E.	N.E.
16	30.25	30.33	30.18	37	53	44	Fair	Clo.	N.E.	E.
17	30.21	30.16	30.13	41	61	52	Clo.	Clo.	E.	E.
18	30.14	30.17	30.22	49	55	49	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.	E.
19	30.30	30.32	30.33	44	45	38	Clo.	Fair	N.E.2	N.E.1
20	30.34	30.34	30.32	34	57	40	Fair	Clo.	W.	E.
21	30.29	30.31	30.31	38	59	43	Clo	Clo.	E.	E.
22	30.22	30.11	30.05	47	67	50	Clo.	Fair	E.	W.
23	30.07	30.00	29.97	39	54	35	Fair	Fair	W.1	N.W.1
24	29.78	29.56	29.56	39		38	Clo.	Clo.	N.W.	N.W.1
25	29.71	29.82	29.98	38	45	38	Clo.	Clo.	N.W.2	N.W.2
26	30.00	29.81	29.46	27	45	43	Clo.	Clo.	W.	E.
27	29.41	29.42	29.60	45	48	33	Clo.	Clo.	W.3	N.W.2
28	29.76	29.87	30.07	27		27	Clo.	Fair	W.2	W.
29	30.26	30.22	30.21	26	47	37	Fair	Clo.	W.	W.
30	30.11	30.00	30.24	38	53	27	Clo.	Clo.	S.	N.W.2
31	30.38	30.42	30.41	23	46	35	Fair	Fair	N.W.	W.
	30.38	30.42	30.41	57	76	60	Greatest.			
	30.103	30.073	30.060	41.3	57.8	44.7	Mean.			
	29.41	29.42	29.46	23	45	27	Least.			

Rain on the 6th, 7th and 8th, 48 in.—on the 10th and 11th, 56—on the 22d and 24th, 13. Total, 1.17.

NOVEMBER, 1815.

Day.	Barometer. 7 A. M.	Barometer. 2 P. M.	Barometer. 9 P. M.	Thermometer. 7 A. M.	Thermometer. 2 P. M.	Thermometer. 9 P. M.	Face of Sky. 7 A. M.	Face of Sky. 9 P. M.	Winds. 7 A. M.	Winds. 9 P. M.
1	30.37	30.37	30.38	38	57	33	Clo.	Fair	S.W.	W.
2	30.34	30.19	30.12	32	63	47	Fair	Clo.	W.	S.E.
3	30.12	30.24	30.30	54	49	47	Clo.	Clo.	W.	E.
4	30.41	30.42	30.44	45		48	Clo.	Clo.	N.E.	N.E.
5	30.38	30.23	30.15	47	58	53	Clo.	Clo.	S.W.	S.W.
6	30.05	29.89	29.72	52	63	59	Clo.	Clo.	S.W.	S.1
7	29.82	29.95	30.40	49	53	29	Clo.	Clo.	N.W.2	N.W.
8	30.71	30.72	30.72	21	44	28	Fair	Fair	N.W.	W.
9	30.60	30.35	30.05	35	55	58	Clo.	Clo.	S.W.1	W.
10	29.96	30.04	30.15	55	62	41	Clo.	Clo.	S.W.1	W.
11	30.25	30.25	30.37	32	40	28	Clo.	Fair	N.W.	W.
12	30.51	30.51	30.52	21	37	23	Fair	Fair	N.1	N.E.
13	30.54	30.49	30.49	24	42	23	Clo.	Fair	N.2	N.
14	30.51	30.42	30.41	23	48	28	Fair	Fair	S.W.	W.
15	30.41	30.36	30.33	25	53	29	Fair	Clo.	S.W.	W.
16	30.24	30.09	30.03	33		42	Clo.		N.E.	N.E.1
17	29.95	29.96	30.24	35	38	33	Clo.	Clo.	N.	W.
18	30.48	30.49	30.44	33	43	38	Fair	Clo.	N.W.	E.
19	30.38	30.18	30.10	42	42	37	Clo.	Clo.	E.	N.W.1
20	30.17	30.18	30.20	32	49	34	Fair	Clo.	N.	E.
21	30.20	30.19	30.17	40	52	40	Clo.	Fair	S.W.	W.
22	30.13	29.98	29.83	47	59	57	Clo.	Clo.	S.W.	W.
23	29.98	30.03	30.23	43	53	34	Clo.	Fair	W.	W.
24	30.39	30.40	30.28	30	44	35	Fair	Clo.	W.	W.
25	30.13	30.15	30.22	33	47	30	Clo.	Fair	S.W.	W.
26	30.47	30.46	30.52	25	43	25	Fair	Fair	W.	W.
27	30.61	30.61	30.56	22	44	37	Fair	Clo.	N.W.	E.
28	30.49	30.44	30.26	36	44	40	Clo.	Clo.	E.	E.
29	30.11	29.97	29.79	36	45	43	Clo.	Clo.	N.W.	N.W.
30	29.67	29.76	29.84	47	55	28	Clo.		S.	N.W.2
	30.71	30.72	30.72	55	63	59	Greatest.			
	30.279	30.241	30.244	36.3	48.8	37.6	Mean.			
	29.67	29.70	29.72	21	37	23	Least.			

Rain on the 3d and 4th, .28 in—on the 9th, .18—on the 16th and 17th, .82—on the 19th, .79—a little on the 27th and 28th. Total, 2.07.

Brunswick, Bowdoin College.

BY PROFESSOR CLEVELAND.

OCTOBER, 1815.

	Thermometer.					Barometer.			Winds.		Weather.	
	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	Maximum of cold.	Maximum of heat.	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.
1												
2												
3												
4												
5	38	68	42	34	69	29.94	29.88	29.80	S.W.	S.	Fog.	Cloudy.
6	57	58.5	57	40	64	29.70	29.72	29.83	W.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
7	42.5	54	48. 5	37.5	58.5	30.18	30.18	30.13	N.W.	S.E.	Fair.	Cloudy.
8	51	59	55	46	61	29.93	29.85	29.70	S.E.	S.E.	Rain.	Rain.
9	55.5	66	44	44	68.5	29.54	29.53	29.60	S.	N.W.	Fog.	Fair.
10	42	57	52	35.2	62.5	29.74	29.71	29 70	W.	S.	Fair.	Fair.
11	52.5	63	53	49.5	64 5	29.63	29.70	29.77	W.	S.W.	Rain.	Fair.
12	51	63	59.5	45	69.5	29.66	29.66	29.80	S.W.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
13	45	60	49	34	61	30.02	30.00	30.04	N.W.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
14	43.5	55.5	50	38	53	30.16	30.12	30.09	W.	S.W.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
15	39	43	46	38	49.5	30.02	29.98	29.96	N.E.	N.W.	Rain.	Fair.
16	34	46.7	45	27	47	30.05	30.02	29.98	N.E.	S.	Fair.	Cloudy.
17	46.5	53.5	51	41.5	60	29.92	29.93	29.94	W.	S.	Fair.	Fair.
18	49.5	51	48	45	51.5	30.02	30.03	30.03	N.E.	N.E.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
19	41	50.5	48	35.5	53	30.13	30.10	30.10	N.E.	N.E.	Fair.	Fair.
20	36.5	54	47	29	55	30.11	30.08	30.08	N.E.	S.	Fair.	Fair.
21	42.5	54	49.5	33.5	57	30.10	30.09	30.05	N.E.	S.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
22	44.5	58	43	41	59	29.94	29.85	29.75	S.W.	S.W.	Fair.	Fair.
23	39.5	50	48	36	54	29.82	29.76	29.73	N.W.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
24	37	44	42	29	47.5	29.45	29.32	29.30	S.W.	N.W.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
25	41.5	48	42	36.5	49	29.50	29.56	29.59	N.W.	N.W.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
26	34	45	40	29	45.5	29.67	29.56	29.48	N.W.	W.	Fair.	Cloudy.
27	36	45	42	34.5	46	29.05	29.00	29.06	S.W.	N.W.	Rain.	Cloudy.
28	28	34.5	31.5	25.7	36	29.42	29.50	29.56	N.W.	N.W.	Fair.	Cloudy.
29	28	40.5	39	26	41	29.90	29.92	29.91	N.W.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
30	41	45	42	28.5	45.5	29.84	29.74	29.78	S.W.	N.W.	Rain.	Cloudy.
31	4	39.5	34	19.7	41.5	30.09	30.08	30.10	N.W.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
	57	68	59.5	54	69.5	30.18	30.18	30.13	Greatest.			
	41.5	52.6	46.4	35.51	54.6	29.83	29.81	29.81	Mean.			
	24	34.5	31.5	19.7	36	29.05	29.00	29.06	Least.			

Mean temperature deduced from three observations each day 46.86°
ditto maxima of heat and cold 45.06
Mean height of barometer - - 29.816 in.
Greatest monthly range of ditto. - 1.13
Rain - - - - - - - 1.22

NOVEMBER, 1815.

	Thermometer.					Barometer.			Winds.		Weather.	
	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	Maximum of cold.	Maximum of heat.	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.
1	32	43	43	25	49	30.12	30.13	30.15	N.E.	S.W.	Fair.	Fair.
2	36	53.7	47.5	26.5	54.5	30.00	29.88	29.82	S.W.	S.W.	Fair.	Fair.
3	47	46	42.5	42.5	47	29.96	30.04	30.03	N.E.	N.E.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
4	38.5	43.5	44	36	50	30.22	30.21	30.18	N.E.	S.E.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
5	47.5	54	50	42.5	56	30.07	30.01	29.95	S.W.	S.W.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
6	50	55	43	43	56	29.74	29.60	29.57	S.W.	S.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
7	46	49	33	38	50	29.56	29.65	29.83	N.W.	N.W.	Cloudy.	Fair.
8	22	34	31.5	15.2	35	30.38	30.40	30.42	N.W.	S.W.	Fair.	Fair.
9	37	46.5	46.5	30.5	48	30.26	30.15	30.04	S.W.	S.	Cloudy.	Rain.
10	52	61.5	54	46	63	29.66	29.70	29.78	S.W.	N.W.	Cloudy.	Fair.
11	37	36.5	33	26.5	37	30.00	30.02	30.05	N.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
12	17	30	26.5	13	30.5	30.24	30.26	30.27	N.W.	N.E.	Fair.	Fair.
13	18	31	26.5	12.5	31	30.28	30.22	30.22	N.	N.	Fair.	Fair.
14	18	39.5	34.5	11	40	30.13	30.11	30.11	W.	S.W.	Fair.	Fair.
15	21	45	36	18.5	46	30.07	30.05	30.07	S.W.	S.W.	Fair.	Fair.
16	26	38.5	33.5	21	39	30.11	30.09	30.04	N.E.	N.E.	Cloudy.	Snow.
17	33.5	46	40	32.5	46	29.70	29.66	29.74	N.	N.W.	Cloudy.	Fair.
18	26	40	36.5	23	41	30.20	30.22	30.24	N.W.	S.W.	Fair.	Cloudy.
19	35	41	36.7	34	41	30.15	30.08	30.02	N.E.	N.E.	Cloudy.	Rain.
20	35.5	43	40.5	33.7	43	29.91	29.92	29.97	N.	N.	Fair.	Cloudy.
21	38	44	43	33.7	45	29.94	29.91	29.87	S.W.	S.W.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
22	35	46	45.5	31	47	29.85	29.79	29.64	W.	S.E.	Fog.	Mist.
23	42	51	44	41	52	29.70	29.75	29.92	N.W.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
24	25	40	37	22	40.5	30.11	30.12	30.00	N.W.	S.W.	Fair.	Cloudy.
25	37	44	39	30	45	29.81	29.82	29.90	N.W.	N.W.	Cloudy.	Fair.
26	20.5	33	33.5	19.5	33.5	30.15	30.19	29.24	N.W.	N.W.	Fair.	Fair.
27	21	32.5	31.5	18	33	30.40	30.37	30.39	N.W.	S.E.	Fair.	Cloudy.
28	33	42	36.5	30	43	30.26	30.20	30.12	E.	S.E.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
29	36	46	42	34.5	47	29.85	29.71	29.60	N.	N.	Mist.	Fog.
30	42	47	45.5	41	48	29.44	29.20	29.22	S.E.	N.W.	Rain.	Cloudy.
	52	61.5	54	46	63	30.40	30.40	30.42	Greatest.			
	33.5	43.9	39.4	29.1	44.7	30.01	29.88	29.94	Mean.			
	17	30	26.5	11	30.5	29.44	29.20	29.22	Least.			

Mean temperature deduced from three observations each day 38.92°
ditto maxima of heat and cold 36.89
Mean height of barometer - - - 29,976 in.
Greatest monthly range of ditto. - - 1.22
Rain and snow reduced to water - - 1.67

MISCELLANEOUS AND LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

Abiel Smith Esq. who died in November last, an opulent merchant in Boston, and a graduate of the University in 1764—bequeathed ten thousand dollars, six per cent. stock of the United States, and twenty thousand dollars three per cent. to the University, towards maintaining a teacher or professor of the French and Spanish languages, or of the French language alone, as the government of the University should see fit.

SUBJECTS OF BOWDOIN PRIZE DISSERTATIONS FOR 1816.

1. The Christian Doctrine of Faith.
2. The reciprocal influence of literature and morals.
3. The importance of commerce as a source of private and publick wealth.
4. The characteristicks of the Greek language.
5. The Iliad.

Six premiums (three first and three second) will be assigned, if so many dissertations of sufficient merit shall be offered. Candidates will mention their standing, as Resident Graduates or Undergraduates; and if Undergraduates, of what class. The performances must be in the hands of the President by the end of June.

The first premium is thirty dollars, or a gold medal of that value—and the second twenty dollars, or a gold medal of that value.

The prizes in 1815, were assigned in July last as follows:—A second premium to Thomas Savage, A. B. for a Dissertation on the question, "Whether the Greek Article be used with so much precision by the writers of the New Testament, that inferences may be drawn from it in favour of important doctrines."

A first premium to Jared Sparks, of the Senior class, for a dissertation "On the character of Sir Isaac Newton, and the influence, and importance of his discoveries."

A second premium to John D. Crocker, of the Senior class—Subject—The practical utility of the Philosophy of the mind.

To Justin W. Clark, a Junior—Subject—"The present Age."

To John Everett, of the Freshman class—Subject—"The distinguishing excellencies of the Hebrew."

The Corporation, with the assent of the Overseers, have invited the co-operation of the friends of the College, in their design to extend the means of Theological education at the University.

THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION IN HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

The Corporation of Harvard College have thought it their duty, to adopt measures for increasing the means of Theological Education at the University. In order to enable Students in Divinity to reap the benefit of the eminent advantages which the College possesses for this purpose, there is need of funds for assisting meritorious Students of limited means to reside in Cambridge for a requisite time:—Of one or more Professors, whose attention may be exclusively given to this class of students; and of a separate building.

The Corporation are disposed and determined to apply the resources of the college to this object, as far as other indispensable claims admit. But these resources being entirely incompetent to the accomplishment of their views, they feel it incumbent upon them to call upon the Friends of the University, and of the Christian Ministry, to co-operate with them in this interesting design.

As the best method of obtaining the assistance of the liberal and pious, it is proposed to form a Society "*for the education of candidates for the ministry in Cambridge University.*" All persons who shall subscribe five dollars a year shall be members, and continue such so long as they shall pay the said annual sum:—Clergymen paying two dollars a year to be considered as members.

All persons subscribing One Hundred Dollars to be considered members of the said society for life. Subscriptions for smaller sums, either as annual payments or as donations, will be thankfully received.

Whilst annual and life subscriptions are desired, it is hoped, that affluent friends of the College, and of the Churches, will by donations and bequests, do justice to the noble objects of Christian munificence here presented.

The Corporation are induced to believe, that a large number of persons in the metropolis and in various parts of this Commonwealth will view this invitation with favour;—as an occasion for doing what many of them have anxiously wished to see accomplished.

Thinking the importance of the subject gives it a claim to appear under respectable auspices, the Corporation have ventured to place on the Committees the names of a number of distinguished Sons and Friends of the University, who are requested to take charge of the papers for subscription.

Clergymen are not named on these Committees, being considered as engaged by the nature of their office to afford their assistance, and being separately desired in their respective congregations and circles to promote the pious design.

Gentlemen are requested to make a return of the result of their exertions on or before the *First Monday in April* next, after which the Corporation will call a meeting of the subscribers, that they may adopt any measure they may see fit to carry this charitable plan into effect, and particularly to choose five Trustees to act with the Corporation in the appropriation of the funds.

In behalf of the Corporation, with the assent of the Reverend and Honourable Board of Overseers,

JNO. T. KIRKLAND, *President.*

Harvard College, December 11, 1815.

There is now in the press of Cummings and Hilliard, an elementary treatise on Mineralogy and Geology, in one volume of between 6 and 700 pages, by Professor Cleaveland, of Bowdoin College. The work will be accompanied with plates, illustrating the structure and actual forms of chrystals, and a geological map of the United States.

The work is more especially designed for pupils, for gentlemen attending mineralogical lectures; and also as a companion for travellers, for which purpose particular attention has been devoted to the designation of all the localities of minerals in the United States. A work of this kind is much wanted, for the assistance of those who are disposed to engage in the study of this useful and interesting science. From the abilities and application of Professor Cleaveland, we have no doubt that this work will be executed in a manner to merit the publick patronage, which it may be hoped will remunerate him, for the study and labour it has required.

A new volume of the Travels of Dr. Clarke, is announced in England, containing the third and last section of Part the second, of the Travels in Greece, Egypt, and the Holy Land, containing an account of the author's journey from Athens, by land, to Constantinople, with a description of the north of Greece, Macedonia, and Thrace. With a supplement, giving an account of his journey from Constantinople to Vienna, and of a visit to the gold and silver mines of Hungary.

A poem by Mr. Thomas Moore, for which he has been long engaged, is to make its appearance this winter.

An article in the Monthly Magazine says, 'We are authorized 'to mention that the Parliamentary Debates, published by Han- 'sard, contain reports of the speeches of *Mr. Whitbread*, often 'prepared, and always corrected by himself. This is an impor- 'tant fact, because those speeches, so published, afford more cor-

'rect details of the opinions of that illustrious patriot, than sur-
'vive of any of his contemporaries. Mr. Fox never wrote
'but one speech, and that at the instance of the Editor of this
'Magazine, who still possesses the manuscript; and Mr. Pitt often
'declared, that it was utterly impossible for him to recollect
'even the train of his ideas, subsequent to the delivery of one
'of his speeches. On being once asked to correct the copy
'of a particular speech, he replied, "that he could trace so little
'resemblance between the newspaper report and the speech
'which he supposed he had made, that, to do himself justice, he
'must compose a new speech, for which he had not leisure."'

Mr. Southey went to Flanders in October, to visit the field of Waterloo; and a poem will follow of course. Mr. Swift, a descendant of the celebrated Dean of St. Patrick, has also published a poem on that subject.

Memoirs of the life and writings of Miss Ramsay, by her father, the late Dr. Ramsay, of Charleston, are publishing in London from the third American edition. A second edition of the Travels of Messrs. Lewis and Clark to the Pacifick Ocean is publishing in England.

M. Carey, Philadelphia, has in press,

A Tour through Italy, exhibiting a view of its Scenery, its Antiquities, and its Monuments; particularly as they are objects of Classical Interest and elucidation; with an account of the present state of its Cities and Towns; and occasional observations on the recent spoliations of the French. By the Rev. John Chetwode Eustace. 2 vols. 8vo. with plates.

The Paradise of Coquettes. A Poem in nine parts.

M. Carey, Philadelphia, has published,

Personal Narrative of Travels to the Equinoctial Regions of the New Continent, between the years 1799—1804. By Alexander De Humboldt, and Aimè Bonpland. Written in French, by Alexander de Humboldt, and translated into English by Helen Maria Williams.

Labaume's Account of the Campaign in Russia.

Edward Earle, Philadelphia, has published,

Rhymes on Art; or, the Remonstrance of a Painter: in two parts; with Notes and a Preface, including Strictures on the State of the Arts, Criticism, Patronage, and Publick Taste. By Martin Archer Shee, R. A.

Roderick, the last of the Wisigoths; an Epick Poem. By Robert Southey, Esq.

WELLS and LILLY, Boston, have published,

A Vindication of Unitarianism, in reply to Mr. Wardlaw's discourses on the Socinian controversy. By James Yates, M. A. From the Glasgow edition.

'Read, not to contradict or confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse, but to weigh and consider.'——*Lord Bacon.*

Practical Hints to Young Females, on the Duties of a Wife, a Mother, and a Mistress of a Family. By Mrs. Taylor, of Ongar, Author of 'Maternal Solicitude for a Daughter's Best 'Interests.' From the third London Edition.

'Every wise woman buildeth her house, but the foolish plucketh it down with 'her hands.'——*Solomon.*

Female Scripture Characters; exemplifying Female Virtues. By the author of the 'Beneficial Effects of the Christian Tem-'per on Domestick Happiness.' From the third London edition.

'For whatsoever things were written aforetime were written for our learning, that 'we through patience and comfort of the Scriptures, might have hope.'—*Rom.* v. 4.

OBITUARY.

DEATHS AT HOME.

In Massachusetts. In Boston, Abiel Smith, Esq. aged 69. After bequeathing an ample fortune amongst his relations, he gave a sum to the University to found a Professorship of French, and also a sum to aid the African school in Boston. At Salem, Mr. Richard Derby, assistant surgeon of the Independence, 74, a young man of promise. In Danvers, Hon. Samuel Holton, aged 77. He was a patriot of the revolution, a President in Congress during the American war, he has filled many civil offices, and was greatly beloved and respected.

In Weymouth. The Hon. Cotton Tufts, aged 84. An eminent Physician and worthy citizen.

In Boston. Rev. Samuel Lathrop, D. D. aged 76. Dr. Lathrop had officiated in the sacred duties of his profession near half a century. He was the senior member of the Corporation of Harvard University, and lived and died most highly beloved and respected.

In Connecticut. Middletown, Col. J. Johnson, aged 79. A patriot of former times. In Williamston, Rev. William King, 58, struck with paralysis in his pulpit, and died the same evening.

In New York. In Cambridge, Mr. Solomon, of a wound from a scythe. It has been said, that this man married two sisters about the same time, lived alternately a week with each, and had thirteen children by each of them. The two families lived a short distance from each other in affection and harmony; and the two widows and 26 children followed the deceased to the grave. It is difficult to say whether this be a greater violation of law or of probability. In New York city, Sir James Jay, M. D.

In Pennsylvania. Philadelphia. Edward Tilghman, Esq. an eminent lawyer. Professor Barton. He had recently returned from Europe where he went for the benefit of his health. He held one of the medical professorships, and was distinguished for his scientifick attainments. He has published several works, and his loss is a publick one.

In Maryland. The Right Reverend John Carroll, D. D. Archbishop of the Roman Catholick Church in the United States, aged 80. This venerable man was one of the most remarkable men of his time. He was sent to the College of St. Omers in France for his education, passed from thence to the College of Liege, where he was ordained a priest, and after surrendering his patrimonial estate to his brother, entered the society of the Jesuits. After the dissolution of that order, he acted as their secretary, and travelled as Tutor to one or two English Catholick Noblemen. When the American Revolution occurred, he retured to his own country, was employed by the government, with Dr. Franklin, Judge Chase and Mr. Carroll on a mission into Canada. After our independence was established, at the request of the American Government, though not in an official manner, he was consecrated by the Pope, the first Catholick Bishop in the United States, and a short time since he was raised to the rank of Archbishop. He possessed great talents and learning, without ostentation, dignity without haughtiness, piety without austerity, and his life was a course of beneficence; the people who were under his pastoral care, and the poor who constantly experienced his charity, bewail in his loss that of a Father.

In Virginia. Elder Benjamin Bump, a black man, aged 80. He had been a preacher of the Baptist persuasion upwards of fifty years. Charles Grim, one of the surviving veterans, who were made prisoners in the attempt to storm the walls of Quebec, under the gallant Montgomery. The Virginia paper that mentions his death says, "many more temperate men than old 'Charley' have died, but an honester one *never* did."

In Kentucky. General George Trotter, aged 87.

In Louisiana. Col. Thomas Gales.

In New Orleans. Midshipman George Parker, who distinguished himself, and was wounded in the defence of that city.

DEATHS BY VIOLENCE.

In Connecticut. Peter Lung, executed for murder.

In New-York. Lieutenant O'Fling of the Army, suicide. James Daffield fell overboard, in a scuffle and was drowned. In *Cicero*, Isaac Lynn, suicide. James Lyons, a schoolmaster, hung himself. Elvira Gosman, aged 19, suicide, from despair at seduction.

In Delaware. A man executed for murder.

In Maryland. Mr. Edward Owings, murdered by six of his father's slaves. They have since been tried, and four of them condemned to be executed.

DEATHS ABROAD.

In England. At Cheltenham, on the 18th of August, 1815, Theodoric Tudor Randolph, in the 20th year of his age. What opposite

emotions does a death like this, in the very bloom of existence, and the decease of a character like Heyne, described in our previous pages, in the full maturity of his labours and ripened fame, create in our minds! The one is the joyful gathering of the ripened harvest; the other, an untimely blasting of the fairest blossom. The one is the fortunate consummation of the greatest glory that human nature can achieve, a long course of useful and elevated labour, terminated by a serene resignation of life; the other, the cruel withering of rising hopes, the destruction of vigorous promise, the barbarous sacrifice of youthful, brilliant ambition, without permitting it to inscribe its name, in the temple of Memory. The death of fortunate old age should be followed with hymns of triumph. In the prostration of youthful ardour and excellence, the privation of that fame it would have merited, exasperates the feelings of affliction; and religion alone can check the torture of disappointment impelled to murmur at a dispensation, the severity of which time only can subdue.

Mr. Randolph was the youngest son of the late Richard Randolph, Esq. of Bizarre, Virginia, and nephew of the hon. John Randolph, so long distinguished in the parliamentary history of our country. To complete his classical education, he became a member of Harvard university, in September, 1812. Although then but seventeen years of age, he had made an extensive acquaintance with Greek and Roman learning; which he continued to cultivate, while he paid a general attention to all the sciences, and the different branches of literature. His conduct in this literary connexion was equally approved by his instructers and associates. He attained to the highest honours the university distributed, during the period of his matriculation, and was among the most promising candidates for its ultimate distinctions, when his connexion with that seminary was suspended by the progress of the disease, which terminated in his death. The Corporation of the University, in testimony of his literary and moral worth, allowed him to receive the Bachelor's degree with his class, notwithstanding his incomplete residence.

This young man's genius was of the first order: his ambition not inferiour to his genius, as correct as it was elevated. In all the virtues of the heart, in all gentlemanly accomplishments, in purity, integrity, and refinement of life and manners, he was as exemplary, as he was eminent for his zeal after literary distinction. The youth we lament, was among the most promising of the future hopes of our country.

Heu miseranda puer! si qua fata aspera rumpas!—

J. S. Copley, Esq. R. A. and F. A. A. a native of Boston, and long known as an artist of great talents. Walter Burke, Esq. 76, a purser in the Navy. He was a brother of the celebrated Edmund Burke, and purser of the Victory at the battle of Trafalgar. Lord Nelson died in his arms. At Royston, the Rev. Samuel Cary, associate minister of King's Chapel, Boston, deeply regretted by his parishioners and friends. In *London*, John Coakley Lettsom, F. R. S. a physician of great eminence, and a man of the most extensive philanthropy. At *Birmingham*, Mr. Hutton, at a very advanced age. He was a remarkable character. He amassed a large fortune by his industry, and wrote many volumes of prose and poetry. His history of Birmingham, and his antiquarian researches, have gone through many editions, and are very

highly esteemed. There is a great deal of quaintness and sprightly remark in some of his works.

In Ireland. The Rev. John Thayer, formerly pastor of the Catholick Church, in Boston.

In Prussia. Madame Bethmen, one of the first actresses in Europe.

In Spain. The widow of General Porlier. This is a second instance, in the course of a few months, Madame Labedoyere was the other, of ladies who have died of broken hearts, for the loss of their husbands. Where will the satirists of the sex find a parallel case in their own?

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

A. B. will find the paper he sent us, left for him as he requested, and a note within, explaining the reasons for its being returned.

The lines sent by '*Sidney*' from New-Haven, have perplexed us; we do not understand his object; they are too dull for a jest, and too extravagant to be serious; and as the postage was not paid, we can truly say, that we are at a loss for the author's intentions.

NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW

AND

MISCELLANEOUS JOURNAL.

Nº. VI.

MARCH, 1816.

A briefe narration of the originall undertakings of the advancement of plantations, into the parts of America, especially shewing the beginning, progress and continuance of that of New-England. Written by the right worshipfull Sir Ferdinando Gorges, Knight and Governour of the Fort and Island of Plymouth in Devonshire. London, printed by E. Brudenell for Nath. Brook at the Angell in Cornhill, 1658.

Sir Ferdinando Gorges was one of the earliest and most persevering of those gentlemen in England who undertook to colonize this country. His engaging in it, seems to have arisen in part from an accident. Captain Waymouth had been employed by Lord Arundel to attempt the discovery of a North-West passage: while engaged in this, he landed on the shore of Maine, and took away some of the natives. On his arrival at Plymouth Sir Ferdinando Gorges, who was the Governour, took away three of them which he kept three years, and it was the information obtained from these, that induced him to engage in the scheme of forming a colony. The first effort made by him and his associates was to send a hundred people, who landed and passed the winter at Sagadahock in 1607. The next year

they returned home, and it was several years afterwards before the permanent settlement was made at Plymouth. The original company comprehended very extensive grants in their charter. Indeed, at the outset, the whole coast of the United States was divided between two companies, that of Virginia and New-England. These were successively subdivided; and finally, in 1631, a further division took place, when Sir Ferdinando Gorges received for his share what he calls the Province of Maine, this name owed its origin to him; but his grant took in only a part of that District, and a part of what is now New-Hampshire. We shall make one extract as a specimen of his manner: It does not appear exactly at what time the work was written, but probably about 1632.

"*Chapter* 8." *The sending supplies to the Colonie and the unhappie death of the Lord Cheife Justice* (*Popham*) *before their departure.*

The supplies being furnished and all things ready onely attending for a faire wind, which hapned not before the news of the cheife justice death was posted to them, to be transported to the discomfort of the poor planters, but the ships arriving there in good time, was a great refreshing to those that had had their store house and most of their provisions burnt the winter before.

Besides that they were strangely perplexed with the great and unseasonable cold they suffered, with that extremity, as the like hath not been heard of since, and it seemes was universall, it being the same yeare that our *Thames* were so lockt up that they built their boates upon it, and sould provisions of severall sorts to those that delighted in the novelties of the times, but the miseries they had past, were nothing to that they suffered by the disasterous news they received of the death of the Lord cheife justice, that suddainely followed the death of their President, but the latter was not so strange, in that he was well stricken in years before he went, and had long been an infirme man. Howsoever heartned by hopes, willing he was to die in acting something that might be serviceable to God, and honorable to his country, but that of the death of the cheif justice was such a corrosive to all, as struck them with despaire of future remedy, and it was the more augmented,

when they heard of the (death of) Sir *John Gilbert*, elder brother of *Ralph Gilbert* that was then their President, a man worthy to be beloved of them all for his industry, and care for their well being; the President was to return to settle the state his brother had left him, upon which all resolved to quit the place, and with one consent to away, by which meanes all our former hopes were frozen to death, though Sir *Francis Popham* could not so give it over, but continued to send thither severall years after in hope of better fortunes, but found it fruitlesse and was necessitated at last to sit down with the losse he had already undergone.

America painted to the life, a true history of the originall undertakings of the advancement of Plantations into those parts, with a perfect relation of our English Discoveries, shewing their beginning, progress, and continuance, from the year 1628 *to* 1658, *declaring the forms of their government, Policies, Religions, Manners, Customs, Military Discipline, Warres with the Indians, the Commodities of their Countries, a Description of their Townes, and Havens, the increase of their trading, with the names of their Governours and Magistrates. More especially an absolute Narrative of the North parts of America and of the discoveries and plantations of our English in New England. Written by Sir Ferdinando Gorges Knight and Governour of the Fort and Island of Plimouth in Devonshire, one of the first and cheifest promoters of those Plantations. Published since his decease, by his Grand-child Ferdinando Gorges Esquire, who hath much enlarged it and added severall accurate descriptions of his owne. A work now at last exposed for the publick good, to stir up the heroick and active spirits of these times to benefit their Country, and eternize their names by such honorable attempts. For the reader's clearer understanding of the Country's, they are lively described in a compleat and exquisite map. Vivit post funera virtus. London: Printed by E. Brudenell, for Nathaniel Brook, dwelling at the Angel in Cornhill* 1658. *4to. pp.* 60.

This is altogether a different work from the one mentioned in the last article. It contains a preface by the elder

Gorges, as well as another by his grandson, but how much of the work was written by the former is difficult to discover. It brings the account of the settlements made and towns incorporated in Massachusetts to the year 1648. The author makes a hasty mention of all the Spanish settlements on the Continent, as well as of all the different Islands of the West Indies, and a brief account of Virginia, before he commences with New England. In speaking of Virginia, which at that time comprehended Maryland and North Carolina, he has this observation; "and great profit is derived from the commodities which Virginia produceth, the chiefe of which are Pitch, Tarre, Soapashe, Rosen, Flax, Cordage, Wainscot, Glasse and such like." We presume that at this day very few of the articles here enumerated, are exported from Virginia of her own production.

The following extract is from his account of New-England. "But before I come to the more exact description of the Country and the commodities thereof, it will be convenient to prosecute the remainder of the history, and to give a brief account of all the most materiall passages that have hapned within these few yeares last past. In the yeare 1628 after a perfect discovery had been made, which was chiefely effected by my Grandfather's vast charges, and his unwearied paines, and travaile in the businesse, and that a large gap was opened to the free possession of that Country; people of all sorts flocked thither in great numbers, especially such as were discontented at the form of Church Government then settled in this nation, and had retired to *Holland* for liberty of conscience, as hath been before specified. The Indians about the time beheld to their great amazement that blazing Comet, so much noted in Europe, which appeared after sunsetting in their horizon South West for the space of thirty sleeps, (for so they reckon their daies) after which uncouth sight, they expected some strange things to follow, the whole nation of the *Massachusetts* having been a little before that, affrighted with the arrivall of a ship of ours in their bay, wondring exceedingly what strange creature it should be, when they beheld a great thing moving toward them upon the water, especially when having let fly their arrows at it out of their Canous, thinking to have killed it, the Master caused a piece of ordnance to be fired, whereby the poor *Indians* struck with a panick feare hasted to the shore; but when our men ap-

peared and produced their copper Kettles, they were by degrees invited to trade with us for Beaver skins; the summer after the blazing star (which moved from East to West) even a little before the English removed from *Holland* to *Plimouth* in *New England*, there befell a very great mortality among the Indians, the greatest that had ever hapned in the memory of man, or been taken notice of by tradition, laying desolate the East, and by the Northern parts the County of *Pockankie*, Agissawam; the *Aborginny* men consisting of Wippanaps, Tarantines, and the *Sagamoreships*, or petty kingdoms of the *Massachusetts*, the *Nianticks*, *Narrowganssitts*, and *Pecods*, their Powows or Doctors were amazed to see their wigwams or streets lie full of dead bodies, and neither *Squantam* their good nor *Abbamock* their bad God could help them, which very much facilitated the landing of the *English* not long after in Plimouth plantation; who coming but with a handful of men found little or no resistance, being onely sent to keep possession for the brethren who arrived eight daies after, when the natives appearing with their bows and arrows, let fly their long shafts among them; but one Captain *Miles Standish* with his fowling peice shot the stoutest Sachem among the Indians, on the right arm, as he was reaching an arrow from his quiver, whereupon they all fled away with great speed through the woods and thickets." p. 26.

The Comet, its motion from East to West, the first apparition of a ship, the pestilence that swept off the natives, previous to the landing of the first adventurers, will all furnish picturesque materials for the poet.

Those persons, who take an interest in the subject of our climate, may be amused at the author's ideas on this subject. "The country being scituate in the midst of the temperate zone, in the space between the Artick circle, and the Tropic of Cancer, one would think it should enjoy the same temperature of ayr, as France and some part of Italy, but we find the contrary, for that part which borders upon the sea, is of coulder ayr, partly by reason of the nearnesse of the sea, the mounting of whose waves breaks the reflexion of the sunbeams, partly by reason of the abundance of vapours, which on mounting upward abate the ardour of them: but the more inland parts of the Country are indifferently warme, and it hath been found by certain experience that those countries which look toward the rising of the sun,

are colder than those which lie toward the West or sunsetting, and those which have the evening windes on them are warmer than those which have the morning windes, which being so, it follows that the temperature of the ayr in those regions is most proper and peculiar to the bodies of those of our nation, who being accustomed to a climate somewhat temperate, are neither able to endure extremity of cold, nor immoderate heat." p. 45.

The strange and delectable history of the discoverie and conquest of the Provinces of Peru in the South Sea. And of the notable things which there are found: and also of the bloudie ciuill varres vvhich there happened for gouernment. Written in foure bookes by Augustine Sarate, auditor for the Emperour his Maiestie in the same prouinces and firme land. And also of the ritche mines of Potosi. Translated out of the Spanish tongue, by T. Nicholas. Imprinted at London by Richard Jhones, dwelling ouer against the Fawlcon, by Holburne bridge 1581. Black letter, 4to.

This is a history with rather minute details of the first discovery and conquest of Peru and the adjoining Provinces. The insatiable avarice of the Spaniards inspired them with such a spirit of daring enterprise, and such inflexible fortitude in suffering, that a mere handful of men were sufficient to overrun those beautiful countries, which were swarming with population. The unfortunate Indians, though they were accustomed to war with each other, opposed their myriads in vain to the weapons, the skill, and the courage of their invaders. The achievements of the three Pizarros, Almagro, de Castro, Benalcasar, Alvarado, &c. &c. seem almost incredible. The weakness of the natives fortified the presumption and confidence of these captains, to such a degree, that although they had only a few companies of men under their command, and were surrounded by innumerable crowds of hostile Indians, they paid but slight deference to the mother country, and soon fell into violent quarrels with each other, in the course of which the wretched Peruvians were revenged for their sufferings, by the Spaniards themselves. Most of the original invaders, both officers and soldiers, perished in fighting with each other.

The following extracts will give an idea of the style.

The first relates some of the customs of the Peruvians, and a remarkable piece of policy in the sovereign. The next says something of the Amazons; and gives the origin of rats in South America. The last is a comparison of Pizarro and Almagro.

"These Indians dwell not in houses, but their abidyng is under trees, and shadowes made for the purpose. Their women were garments made of cotton woll, like unto gownes which come downe to their feete. The men were shirtes downe to the knees, and certain mantels upon the same, and although their attire is after one sorte, they differ in the attire of their heads, accordynge to the use of euery countrey: some use their haire bounde up with laces of woll, some with one lace, and other with many laces of sundry colours, so there is none but hath some deuice in his hed, and in euery prouince of a seuerall kinde."

"All the Indians of the playnes are deuided into three sortes, the one are called Yngas, another sorte are called Tallanes, and the thirde Mochicas: in euery prouince they differ in speeche, notwithstandinge the noblemen, called Caseikes, besides their natural speech doo all generally understande the language of the cittie of Cusco, because the kinge of Peru, called Guaynacaua, father of kinge Atabalipa, thought it a base thinge that his subiectes, especially noble men, should talk with him by interpreters, whereupon he commaunded that all the Caseikes of his country and dominions, and their brethren and kinsmen should sende their children to serue and attende on the kinge in his court, under the colour to learn the courtly speeche: but cheefely the kinge's intente was to assure his countrey with the principall men of his kingdome, in hauinge their children in pledge. But bee as it will, by this meanes it came to passe, that all the nobilitie of his lande, understoode and could speake the language used in court, as in Flaunders the Gentilmen and others speake the Frenche tongue: so that in conclusion, any Spanyarde that attained to the Cusco speeche, mought wel passe through the dominions of Peru, as well in the playnes as in the mountaynes, to understand and to be understood among the cheefest." Chap. 6, B. 1.

"The Indians of Chili goe apparelled like unto the Indians of Peru, both men and women are of a good iesture and feede ordinarily of such meates as those of Peru. Be-

yond Chili 33 degrees from the line, are two greate men of power, which maintaine alwayes war, the one against the other, and eche of them is of power to bringe into the feelde 200,000 men of war: the one was named Leuchengorma, which is lord of an island, which standeth two leagues from the firme land, dedicated to his idols, in which Island standeth a great temple, whereunto appertained 2000 preestes."

"The Indians of this Leuchengorma, informed the Spanyardes, that 50 leagues beyond that place, between two rivers, was a great prouince all inhabited with wemen, which consente not to haue any sorte of men among them, except a certaine time convenient for generation: and then if any happen to bee with childe, and bringe forth men children, they are after certain yeares sent to their fathers, and the daughters which they likewise beare, remaineth with them: these wemen also are in subiection to Leuchengorma. The Queene of these wemen is called Guayboymilla, which in their language, is as much as to say Heauen of Golde, because the reporte was that great quantitie of Gold groweth there, and thereof they make exceedinge ritch cloth, and of all their commodities they pay tribute to Leuchengorma. And although often times the Spanyardes haue had notice of this countrey, yet they neuer tooke the discovery in hande, because Don Diego would not abide to inhabit in the coast: and also sithence that time, Pedro de Valdiuia was sent to inhabit the countrey, who would not bring his desire of furniture to passe, conuenient for the voiage, although he hath inhabited three degrees beyond the Equinoctial southward, and also perfect knowledge of habitation was knowen to bee vnto 40 degrees alonge that coast, especiallye one shippe, which Don Gabriell de Carouiall, Bishop of Placentia, sent in discouery, which had passed through the Strayght of Magalanes, who from the said straite came sayling along that coast northward, untill he arriued at the port of the cittie of the kinges, and before the coming of this shippe there was no memory of Rats found in all Peru, so that it seemed that the first broode of Rats came out of that ship and sithence that time, al the citties of Peru are replenished with aboundance; it is thought that among chests and fardels of marchandize they were carried from place to place: whereupon the Indians do name them Ococha, which is to say, a vermine comen out of the sea." Chap. 2, B. 3.

" Chap. 9. Of the customes and qualities of the Marquesse, *Don Francisco Pisarro*, and the discouerer, *Don Diego de Almagro*."

" Sithens this historie and discouery of the Prouince of Peru, hath origen from the two valiant Captaines, of whom hyther unto we have spoken. Who are the Marquesse *Don Francisco Pisarro* and *Don Diego de Almagro:* It is meete and conuenient to write theyr customes and qualities, comparing them together, as *Plutarchus* vseth, when he writeth of two Captaines, which are in any respect comparable one to the other: and touching the lynage of these our Captaines, at the beginning of this historie, is written as much as could be knowen. But in the residue they were both valiaunt persons of great courage, they were also great sufferers of paynes and trauails, and verie vertuous, they were freends to doo plesure to al men, at theyr owne cost. They were much lyke of inclynation, especially in the state of lyuing, for neyther of them was married, although the youngest of them bothe at the tyme of theyr death, was about three score and five yeeres of age."

" They were both inclined to affayres of warres, although *Don Diego de Almagro*, when occasion of warres wanted, applied himselfe to thinges of gaynes: they were neere of one age, when they tooke the conquest of Peru in hande, in which discouerie and conquest, they tooke the paynes which hath bene declared, although the Marquesse dyd suffer greater trauaile, and passed greater peryls than *Don Diego*. For whylst the one was occupied in the greatest part of the discouerie, the other abode in Panama, prouiding necessaries and furniture for him, as lykewise hath bene declared. They were both noble minded and alwayes they pretended and conceyued haughty thinges, they were gentle and amyable to their soldiours, they were equall in lyberallitie: although in shewe *Don Diego* had the aduantage, because he loued that his gift should be published and blowne abroade: into which condition the Marquesse was contrarie, for he would not permit that his lyberal gifts hould be spoken of: but rather procured to have them kept in secrete, hauing more respect to prouide for the necessitie of such as wanted them, than to obtain a vainglorious report."

" It once happened that a poore soldiour, had his cheefe ritches in a horse, which dyed of an unknown disease, of which mishap the Marquesse hauing understanding, and

coming downe into his Tennis Court, thinking to find the poor soldiour there, he brought in his bosom a wedge of golde, of ten pound weight to giue unto him with his owne hands: and not finding him there at that instant, he chaunced to make a match at play, and without putting off his coate, he played his match, because he would not that any should see the wedge of gold which was in his bosom. The play continued the space of three houres, and then came the soldiour for whome the golde was brought, the which he delyuered unto him secretly, saying: that he had rather haue giuen him three times as much, then to suffer the paynes, which he had taken in his long tarrying: with many other lyke examples, which might at length be spoken of."

"So that alwayes the Marquesse almes and giftes were distributed by his owne handes, and with as much secresie as might be, yea, and alwayes procured the receyuers to keepe silence: and for this consideration, *Don Diego* was held to be more liberall, for although he gaue largely, yet he had a forme how it should seeme much more than it was: notwithstanding, touching this vertue of magnificence, they may justly be called equall. The Marquesse also was wont to say, that considering the company of aduenture and fellowship made betweene them, that neither of them could give any thing wherein the other had not his part and therefore as lyberall was he, which permitted the other to give: and for comprobation this shall seme—That where they were bothe the ritchest men, both in rent and treasure, and as lyberally might dispend the same, as any Prince in the world, not hauing a kingely crowne: yet they came bothe to death with great pouertie: that at this day there is not any remembrance of any thing proper, which was theyrs; sauing, that of all theyr goods and lands, they had not wherewithal to burie them: as the lyke is written of *Cato* and *Silla* and of many other Romane Captaynes, which were buried of almes."

"These two valiant Captaines, were affectioned to doo for theyr seruants and souldiours, bothe to enritch them, and to deliuer them from peryls. But the Marquesse dyd rather in that respect exceed; for once it happened, passing the River called Barzanca, that the great Currant carried away one of his Indians of seruice, which by mishap was fallen therein; and when the Marquesse sawe the peryl of his seruaunt, he forthwith stripped himselfe, and leapt into the

Riuer, hauing good skill of swimming, and pluckt him out by the haire of his head: putting himself in great daunger, through the extreame force of the Currant, in such sort that the valiantest man in all his host, durst not take the lyke enterprize in hande: whereupon some of his Captaines dyd reprehend his ouer much boldnesse, vnto whome he aunswered, Ye know not what thing it is to loue a seruant well."

"Although the Marquesse gouerned long time, and more quietly: yet *Don Diego* was more ambitious, and desirous of rule and dignitie. Bothe of them concerued antiquitie, in thyre ordinarie apparell, euen from their youth upwardes, especially the Marquesse, who euer used to wear ordinarily a Coate of black cloth, with long quarters, and short wasted, his shoes of a white Deere skin, and a white felt hat, and his Sworde and Dagger of ancient facion. And when through the importunate request of his seruants, vpon any solemne holy day, he happened to weare a Gowne furred with Martins, which the Lord Marquesse Cortes had sent to him from New Spaine: as soone as he came from Church, he would throw it from him, and vsed to haue a towell about his necke. In the tyme of Peace, he vsed much to play at Tennis, or at Bowles, and therefore chefflie he vsed the Towell about his necke, to wype the sweate from his face."

"Bothe these Captaynes were most patient in paynestaking, and also in any extremitie of hunger: But particularly the Marquesse shewed the same in the exercise of the sayde pastimes, for there were very fewe young men that could endure with him. He was also more inclyned to any kinds of pastime than *Don Diego*, so that many tymes he would play at the Bowles all the whole day, and passed not with whom he played, although it were eyther Marriner or Myller, nor yet would permitte any to take up his Bowle for him, nor to use towarde him any vsuall ceremonies of duety, accustomed to his Estate and dignitie. It was some waighty matter that should cause him to leaue from play, especially when he was a looser. But if at any tyme he had advertisement of rebellion, or insurrection of Indians, then forthwith his Armor was at hand, and Launce in readinesse, he vsed in such extremities, to ryde poste alone through the Cittie, towarde the place where the altercation was, without tarying for more company."

"These Captaynes were so ready, and of such haughty courage in the Indian warre, that eyther of them would not let to giue the encounter, although the enemies were in number 100,000. They were of good understanding and judgment in any thing that was to be prouided for the warres or for gouernment: especially being bothe men vnlearned, for they could neyther write, reade, or yet firme, which was a thing of great defect in such noble Personages, dealing in such waighty affayres. Yet neuerthelesse, in all other thinges of vertuous inclynations, they shewed themselves to be noble men, onely the former want excepted, wherein the auncient wyse men, dyd hold such want for an argument of basenesse of lynage."

"The Marquesse was a man that had great confidence in his seruants and freendes; All the dispatches which he made as well in gouernment, and reprehencion of Indians, he vsed to make two markes, betweene the which, *Antonio Picardo*, his Secretary, fyrmed the name of *Francisco Pisarro*. But these men may excuse themselues as *Ouidius* excused *Romulus*, saying: that he was an euyll astronomer, but rather had more knowledge in Armies then in Letters."

"Bothe these Captaynes were so affable and playne, among theyr people, that they vsed oftentimes to goe from house to house in the Cittie, to visit thyr neygbours alone, and tooke such fare as they founde, and were alwayes willing to come to any honest neyghbour, that would inuite eyther of them. They were equally abstynent, and moderate in theyr feeding and dyet, as also in refraining of sensualitie, and especially from abusing of any Spanish women: for they deemed that they could not deale therein, without preiudice of theyre neyghbours, whose wiues or daughters, those women were: they neyther ouermuch inclyned to the Indian women."

"The Marquesse had the company of an Indian Gentlewoman, who was sister to *Atabalipa*, by whome he had a sonne, named *Don Gonsalo*, who deceased at fourteene yeeres of age: and a daughter named *Donna Francisca*. By another Indian woman of Cusco he had another sonne called *Don Francisco*.

"*Don Diego de Almagro*, had that sonne of whom we have spoken, who slewe the Marquesse, which sonne he had by an Indian woman of Panama. They bothe receyued honour at the Emperour's hands, for as hath beene declared,

to *Don Francisco Pisarro*, he gaue the tyttle or addition of Marquesse, and made him Governour of Newe Castile, and also ordayned him Knight of the order of Saint James."

"To *Don Diego de Almagro*, he gaue the gouernment of Newe Toledo, and the tyttle of cheefe Discouerer. Particularly the Marquesse was greatly affectioned, and helde in greate feare and reuerence the name of his Maiestie: insomuch that he abstayned from dooing of many thinges that he had power to doo, declaring that he would not that his Maiestie should say, how he ascended in the land: and oftentymes when he was present at the melting of the Sylver and Golde, he would ryse from his chayre, to take up the graynes of Sylver and Golde, which fell from the clypping saying: that with his mouth when handes fayled, he woulde gather together the kinge's portion."

"These two Gentlemen, were equall euen in theyre kindes of death, for the Marquesse brother, put *Don Diego* to death, and *Don Diego* his sonne slewe the Marquesse. The Marquesse was desirous to benefit the Countrey, by tyllage and other commodities."

"He built a fayre house in the Cittie of the Kinges: he also built for the benefite of the Cittie, two rowes of mylles, along the Riuer's side, in which buylding he occupied himselfe at all tymes of leysure, giuing his councell and opinion to all to the Maister workmen: He tooke great paynes in setting forwarde the workes of the Cathedrall Church of the Cittie of the Kinges, and other lyke monuments."

This book is curious as a specimen of early typography and for the block engravings, with which it is ornamented; but these peculiarities it is not necessary here to describe.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

Sir,

If the following minutes, relating to the Russian and American settlements on the North-West Coast of America, and which were hastily written down from the verbal communications of a friend, who visited those settlements, will gratify the curiosity of your readers, they are at your service. C. D.

To the Editor.

At the settlement of Norfolk Sound in latitude 57° north, there are about 600 Russians. The first settlement was made by Berrenoff, in 1792, then a merchant, who fought some battles with the natives who had entrenched themselves in a fort made of trees, and impenetrable by either musket or cannon shot; the natives fired through small loop holes, made in their semicircular entrenchment, while the Russian vessels kept up a long continued fire from their troops and ships, with little or no effect.

Berrenoff then had recourse to shells, and succeeded eventually in throwing a few over the breast work, which fell among and destroyed several of the natives, and drove them from the fort, of which the Russians took possession, and the natives submitted. For these and other services in making the establishment, the Russian Emperour created him a Count of the Empire and Governour of the Settlement. He employs the Russians and the Natives under his control in fishing for the Sea Otters, and catching the few seal which he sends to the China market, or sells to the American vessels at the settlement, in exchange for supplies for his troops and people. His armed force is composed of Russians and Kodiac Indians, drilled and disciplined in the Russian manner. There are no white women, and only four or five half bloods; but the wives of the subaltern officers and soldiers, and the mistresses of the governour and other commissioned officers, are the copper coloured native women. Such is the quantity of peltry collected, that it is not unusual for the Count to give twenty thousand dollars to a single ship for the freight of furs to China. Another source of considerable revenue is derived from supplying American vessels with canoes and Kodiac Indians under Russian officers, who go on the coast of California and kill otters. Each canoe is manned with three Indians, and a vessel of 200 or 250 tons takes with her fifty canoes and Indians and Russians, who are on board the ship until she arrives in the water frequented by the otters. Their manner of killing them is when the wind is calm and the sea smooth the canoes leave the ship, which is never done when the sea is rough or when there is much wind. In this case there is no hunting: the otters in calm weather frequently sleep with their heads out of the water, at other times they sport in schools, springing nearly out of the

water, and in pursuit of their food, which is the squid of our coast.

Fifteen canoes form one party, each with three Indians, and one other canoe having a Russian and two Indians in it. The canoes are made of the skin of the Sea Lion, drawn over a light wooden frame; and swim literally on the surface of the water. No one can go in them but the Indians, except one Russian for each party, and he sits in the centre, for the purpose of keeping an account of the game killed, and putting it down to the credit of the fortunate individual.

The canoes are about fifteen feet long, quite narrow; each having three holes, in which the Indians sit and conceal themselves. They approach the otters very silently. The stillness of night pervades the little fleet in its approach to its intended sporting or sleeping prey. This approach is made in a circle continually decreasing, while the canoe having the Russian is on the outside. At the side of each Indian is a spear, his arrows and bow, and a small piece of wood, on which he makes a notch each time he kills an otter. When the circle has become sufficiently contracted, each Indian fires his arrow, on which is his name, and at a signal they all rush to pick up the dead otters. The Russian sits in his canoe with a book in his hand, in which he gives credit to each Indian for the otters he may have killed. This is determined in favour of that Indian whose arrow is found nearest the centre of the otter's ear. Be there ever so many arrows contributing to the otter's death, only one Indian is credited for it, and that Indian is the one, whose arrow, with his name on it, as was before said, is found nearest the ear hole.

These accounts are kept with the most honourable accuracy. And on their return to the Russian settlement, the most successful Indians are much applauded by the governour, with a view to excite ambition, and they are all rewarded by receiving from the government stores, tobacco, rum, coarse cloathing, and other articles for the supply of Indian wants, and for the gratification of Indian vanity; and these supplies and gratifications are furnished in proportion to the credit, on the Russian subaltern's book.

The governour receives one half of all the skins, as a compensation for the use of the canoes, and for the services of his subjects.

While on board the ship, they are all armed with a crease or dagger which they continually wear. It would be easy for them to destroy the officers and crew and take possession of the ship. But this is prevented by always taking a native woman of high rank, in the ship, to whom they are at all times obedient and submissive. She must be treated as her rank demands, with particular attention, and receives many presents. Besides, the Indians well know if they took possession of the ship, they would all be inevitably lost from their ignorance of navigation, and utter inability of managing a large vessel. They are fed while on board with whale oil and berries, which are put up into casks previous to their leaving Norfolk Sound, as a Sea Stock for the Passage.

The American settlement is on the banks of the Columbia, about ten degrees south of the Russians. In the year a conveyance was made, by the natives, of a large tract of this country to Captains Kendrick and Gray of Boston, and the deed is supposed to be in possession of some merchant who was interested in that expedition. A few weeks since, some Americans from New-York, under those calling themselves the North West American fur company, of which Jno. Jacob Astor is the President, planted themselves here; having some connexion with the English North West Company in Canada. After Captain Porter in the Essex had destroyed the English South Sea Whalers, and broken up their fishery, the Essex, as we all know, was, after a very severe action, captured by the British. Then the Cherub and Racoon sloops of war were despatched to capture the Americans at the Sandwich Islands, and destroy their trade both there and at the Columbia river. But the Americans received over land information of the expedition, through the medium of the English Fur Company stationed about half way from the western and eastern sides of the continent; and here it may be remarked, that the English have trading log houses established all the way from Canada across the continent to the head of the Columbia river; so that they were enabled to give the information before the British vessels arrived. The English traders represented themselves as being out of provisions, and proposed, that the Americans should sell them their provisions and furs on hand, break up the settlement peaceably, and receive bills on Canada in payment. To

these terms the Americans agreed. When the Cherub and Racoon arrived, they found their expected game had escaped. And they expressed much disappointment that their expedition, in this particular, should have been rendered abortive, especially as very glowing and highly coloured pictures of the wealth of the settlement and the great amount of prize-money they should obtain, had been constantly presented to their view by those who ordered the expedition. The natives about Columbia river, on having the conveyance made known to them, expressed their dislike of the transaction, and wished to join the Americans in resisting the English by force, should they come. It was impossible for them not to suppose the English a superiour order of men, when they saw the Americans resorting to measures, by which they might secure their property without fighting. But the Americans did secure their property by the Canada bills, and the British obtained no spoils.

It is evident that the north west trade, and the settlements of the Americans and Russians in that quarter, have excited the attention of the English. In a late Quarterly Review, there is an article, containing many remarks apparently of much more import than the ordinary speculations of a periodical paper. Among other things it is remarked, that the Russians having extensive settlements on the eastern coast of Asia and on the western coast of America, by adopting a course of policy, different from that they have pursued respecting Kamskcatka, might, for a time at least, secure to herself the complete command of the trade of the north west coast of America and all its fisheries, and with proper management soon obtain the monopoly of the fur trade to the China market. And it is added, after a long course of reasoning, tending to produce a clashing of interest between us and the Russians, "that the increasing scarcity of peltry, cannot fail to produce a collision of interests between England, Russia, and the United States, which will at some time or other probably terminate in war."

The settlement of Count Berrenoff is at times visited by the publick ships of Russia, having with them officers of great experience and information. They are always accompanied by a large number of young men of noble families, in the capacity of midshipmen, and in other minor situations. These young men are without exception, of the first education.

There is a continual communication kept up between Analaska on the western side of America, and Petersburg in Russia. The rout is from Norfolk Sound, or Mount Edgecumbe, across the water and up the Shotka sea, seven hundred miles to Shotska. From Shotska by land to Jeerjuskha: about six hundred and fifty miles from Jeerjuskha, they go up the river Lena fifteen hundred miles in boats, in a calm they *pole* the vessel, in a breeze sail, until they arrive at Cartzeu. From Cartzeu they go by land in a coach conveyance to Erskoutsa, about one hundred and seventy miles. Erskoutsa is a large place having about nine hundred houses. From Erskoutsa they proceed in a carriage to Tompsk about eight hundred miles. From Tompsk they proceed to Tobolskow about fifteen hundred Russian miles, (longer than our miles.) From Tobolskow in the same conveyance to Tuimen, about one hundred and sixty miles. From Tuimen to Casan about nine hundred miles. Casan is a large city, having fifteen thousand houses. From Casan to Moscow three hundred and sixty miles; from Moscow to St. Petersburg four hundred and eighty miles, it being altogether about six thousand five hundred and twenty miles.

TO THE EDITOR.

Sir,

From a number of the publication of the society for the encouragement of National Industry in Paris, which is at the Atheneum, we have translated the following account of a most useful improvement in the common foot stove; such stoves are much used among us in our houses, and in travelling. This improvement makes it much more safe, agreeable, and economical; and its advantages in a nursery or a sick chamber, at times when a fire is not wanted, would alone make it valuable. The construction appears simple, but if one could be imported from Paris, it might be more easily imitated. We think it would be worth the attention of some of our manufacturers in this line.

Madame Augustine Chambon de Montaux presented to the society for the encouragement of the economical arts, at the publick sitting of the 10th of May last, *economical foot stoves*, which she has named *augustines*, and for which she has taken a patent.

Madame Chambon, who made use of stoves containing a cup filled with ashes and burning coals, like many other women, to whom this little piece of furniture has become necessary, found that they only answered one useful purpose, *that of warming the feet*, and that they had many defects, some of which she has detailed in a publick notice, printed in January, 1815.

The principal inconvenience of ordinary stoves, is the necessity of often replenishing the fire, of sometimes exhaling unhealthy vapours or disagreeable odours, by means of the charcoal or substances sticking to the shoes, which fall through the superior openings on the fire; of the danger of fire from them, when they shut badly; and of being far from economical, from the necessity of keeping up the fire, which is partly wasted each time that the stove is emptied, to replenish it, according to the common practice.

These inconveniences have induced many persons to make use of boxes lined with tile, in which a piece of cast iron strongly heated is placed; others to obviate the embarrassment of renewing the fire employ, particularly in travelling, bottles filled with boiling water, or bags filled with hot sand; but all these contrivances do not answer the purpose of economy, which ought to be the object, since a fire is necessary to heat *the iron, the sand, or the water.*

The stove of Madame Chambon partakes of none of these defects; it is composed of *a lamp and a reservoir for heat* placed above it; it has the advantages of being easily prepared, heated, and of maintaining an equal heat which lasts a long time, of not being expensive, and of serving many other purposes than that of warming the feet; and of being as easily made use of by men as by women.

The form of the *augustine* is nearly the same as that of the stoves; they may be easily decorated, having no holes on the top as in the common stoves. They may be covered with carpeting fixed on the frame, decorated with fringe, and imitating a common footstool of our parlours.

For the use of men, they may have a pulpit form; they may be easily placed under a desk, to keep the feet warm, without the flame of the lamp, or any odour being perceived.

The lamp fed with such oil as is used for Argand lamps, or what is better, with oil from the marrow of beef, is enclosed within three boxes of tin. The first serves to contain the oil and the wick; the second is destined to receive the oil that may be thrown out by any violent motion: it is fixed

in the middle of the largest box placed underneath the reservoir of heat. The part which holds the wick, is surmounted with a little canopy of copper widened at top, which envelopes the flame, and appears intended to create a slight current of air about it, to prevent it from smoking.

We have verified, as Madame Chambon had announced, that when the wick is well disposed, it does not blacken the reservoir of heat; and that when it is fed with common oil, it consumes about seven centimes (one and a half cents,) worth in fourteen or fifteen hours, and double this sum, when the oil is from marrow, and about twenty centimes, (four cents,) when olive oil at thirty-two cents a pound is made use of.

I found an advantage in making use of a wick of asbestos; but it is rather difficult to procure them, and it always covers itself after a certain time, with carbon, from which it must be cleared. With good olive oil, Madame Chambon says that it makes no carbon, and that its flame is as beautiful at the end of fourteen or fifteen hours, as when it was first lighted.

The *reservoir of heat* is placed six or seven centimetres above the wick of the lamp: it is of tinned copper, sometimes oval, at others of the form and size of an octavo book, and near three centimetres (one inch) in thickness: it is filled with sand and nicely soldered on all sides; it is placed in an opening in the midst of the frame of the stove, and is taken out by means of a ring.

The preparation of the augustines is easy; it is only necessary to fill the reservoir of the lamp with oil to a point marked, to draw up the wick to a proper height for burning, and keep it there with a pin, and place the reservoir of heat over it. The side door of the lamp is left open for a few minutes, and afterwards the copper conductor is put over the flame. In half an hour the reservoir is warm, in forty minutes it attains to blood heat, and in a few moments after will burn the skin if it be touched. The heat may be diminished or increased by enlarging or decreasing the wicks. The lamp requires trimming every six or seven hours.

Besides the advantages, that there is no danger of fire from it, of its warming the feet very perfectly and in a very even manner, and of preventing very often the necessity of keeping a fire in the chimney, the augustine presents many

others. When we are afraid of having our feet cold in bed, we may envelope the reservoir of heat filled with hot sand in a cloth and put it at the foot of the bed, where it retains its heat for a long time.

If it be necessary to change the linen of a child or a sick person, a box of paste-board or wood without a bottom may be placed over the augustine and filled with linen, which will be found warm when it is wanted; if it is wished to keep milk or any other liquid warm, it may also be placed on the augustine, which will answer the purpose of a watching lamp.

Madame Chambon has also prepared for the same purpose pans of tin which may be filled with water, in which objects may be heated by insertion, or which may serve for vapour baths.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

THE following report,* was printed by order of the Legislature for the use of its members. The subject is a very important one, and we have introduced it here, in the hope that those who read it, may feel the necessity of having a building for the use of our learned societies. In Europe, the governments not only build palaces for their libraries and museums, but they bear all their expenses, and give adequate salaries to numerous professors and learned men who have the care of them. Nothing was asked in the present instance but a building, that would afford shelter and security, to extensive libraries and cabinets already existing; which are constantly exposed to destruction from fire, and which are so confined for want of room that their increase is checked. The Bill which was introduced, with its amendments, it may safely be pronounced, was the most liberal in its views of any, that has ever been brought before the Legislature, there were no selfish designs to be promoted by it, but on the contrary, a noble disinterestedness, and superiority to all sordid motives of personal vanity and interest, in the members of these Societies. The Bill provided that the officers of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, the Historical Society, the Agricultural Society, the Massachusetts Medical Society, the Boston Atheneum, and the Linnean Society should form a body politick and corpo-

* Drawn by the Hon. Mr. Quincy.

rate, by the name of the Massachusetts Institution; that the State should authorize a loan of 50,000 dollars at 5 per cent. to erect a building, which building should be the property of the Commonwealth—that all these libraries, and collections belonging to these various societies, should be deposited in it. That the Governour, Council, President of the Senate and Speaker of the House for the time being should be perpetual visiters of the Institution—that the members of the Legislature during its sessions, should have free access to all parts of the establishment—that the Governour, Council and Senators, should each of them be entitled to give an order to any person to visit and consult the libraries and cabinets—and that one day in the week the library and museum should be thrown open to the publick.—This Bill was refused a third reading in the House, 119 to 12. But this vote is no criterion of the feeling of the Legislature with regard to this object. It was rejected in the present session not on the ground of its own merits, but as a question of political expediency; the heavy expenses occasioned by the war have so burthened the State, that in the present condition of the Finances nothing should be done that would increase taxation. When these embarrassments should be removed, all the leading individuals of all parties fully agreed in the powerful claim of these societies, from the services which they had already rendered, and would in future give to the State. The friends of science and literature, and all those who feel for the honour of the State, may therefore look forward with confidence, to seeing this great and most desirable object obtained at no distant day.

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

House of Representatives, January, 15, 1816.

ORDERED—That Messrs. Tudor, of Boston, Knapp, of Newburyport, and Trask, of Brimfield, be a Committee, with such as the Honourable Senate may join, to make inquiries into the actual state of the following Scientifick and Literary Societies—the American Society of Arts and Sciences, the Massachusetts Historical Society, the Linnean Society and the Boston Atheneum, and any other Scientifick Societies, that the Committee may find it advisable to include in their investigation; with leave to report.

Sent up for concurrence.

TIMOTHY BIGELOW, *Speaker.*

In Senate, January 15, 1816.

Read and concurred, and the Honourable Messrs. Quincy and Fuller are joined.

JOHN PHILLIPS, *President.*

The committee, appointed to make inquiries into the actual state of the following literary and scientifick Societies—The American Academy of Arts and Sciences—the Massachusetts Historical Society—the Linnean Society—and the Boston Atheneum, and any other scientifick societies, that they might deem it advisable to include in their investigation, have attended that service; and, having had a full and free communication with the officers of each of said Societies, in relation to their pecuniary funds, and their other property—to the legislative patronage, heretofore extended to any of them—and to that, which might yet be wanting for the protection and advancement of their respective interests, ask leave to make the following statement, as the result of their inquiries.

The American Academy of Arts and Sciences was established in the year 1780, in the midst of our struggle for independence. The only legislative patronage it has ever received, besides its act of incorporation, is the permission, which it had to occupy one of the rooms in the present state house, from the time of its building, until the year 1812, at which time it was removed, for the accommodation of the office of the Adjutant General. Since which time, their library and collections have been deposited, at a rent of one hundred dollars a year, in a room neither safe, nor convenient, and from which they are subject, at every moment, to be ejected, at the will of a landlord.

The library of this institution consists of more than twenty-five hundred volumes, many of which are works of great value, and elsewhere, in this country, not to be obtained—connected with it, is a collection of many rare and valuable mineralogical specimens, of other objects of natural history, and of models of new invented machines, and of the arts. The whole of which has been deposited in a building, exposed, like the common buildings of a city, to the ordinary accidents of fire, and in a situation, in case of the happening of such an event, as would render any exertion for saving this important property, almost hopeless.

The funds of this society are invested in three per cent. and six per cent. stock of the United States, and in a state note of

Massachusetts, the total amount of which stock and note constitutes a nominal principal of three thousand and ninety-seven dollars; and yields an annual interest of one hundred and thirty-four dollars and eighty-five cents, leaving, after deducting one hundred dollars for rent, the net sum of *thirty-four dollars and eighty-five cents*, to be annually applied for the promotion of the great and general objects of that institution. All these funds, such as they are, have been the result of the bequest, benefaction, or voluntary contribution of individuals, and have, in no part, been derived from legislative grant or bounty.

The Massachusetts Historical Society was founded in the year 1791, and, excepting its act of incorporation, has received, from that time to the present, no other legislative patronage, except the grant of the copy right of a map of the state, and which produced the society, after fulfilling all the obligations, which were the condition of the grant, the net sum of *three hundred dollars*.

The library of this society consists of at least three thousand volumes, besides newspapers and manuscripts, and a mineralogical cabinet. All of them articles rare, curious and valuable. In case of loss, many of them are, absolutely, irreparable. The whole connected with the history of our country, and containing evidence relative to the land titles of individuals, which experience has proved is no where else to be found. This precious collection is deposited in the third story over the Arch in Franklin Place, exposed on both sides to fire, and in a situation also, which would preclude all hope of saving them, should such an accident happen.

This society, without other patronage from the legislature, than that which is abovementioned, and limited by its charter to consist of only sixty individuals, one third of which are clergymen of extremely restricted pecuniary resources, have been able, by the voluntary contributions and exertions of its members and friends, not only to amass this valuable collection of books and historical documents, but to raise and expend nearly seven thousand dollars in publishing and distributing thirteen volumes of historical collections—works of no common interest, and of great publick importance.

The present active funds of the society, applicable to the purposes of the institution, consists of a cash balance

in the hands of their Treasurer, amounting to the sum of *fourteen dollars and twenty-eight-cents.*

The Boston Atheneum, while, on the one hand, it has at no time received from the legislature any patronage whatsoever, its charter of incorporation excepted, it has on the other, yielded to the Governour and Council, and to the members of both branches of the legislature a full and free admission to every right and privilege, in the use of their library, which the proprietors themselves exercise. This library consists, at present, of ten thousand volumes, and, in point of value, is inferiour to none upon the continent, that of Harvard University only excepted. All this valuable collection of books the state of their funds has obliged them to deposit in a wooden building, in a central part of the town of Boston, connected and surrounded with other buildings of similar materials. Its exposure to loss by fire is, of course, imminent, and excites in the proprietors and in all, who know the value of the library, a proportionable anxiety for its safety.

This institution was founded in the year 1807, by the voluntary contribution of individuals. The whole amount of subscription was *forty-two thousand dollars.* Of which thirty-two thousand dollars has been expended in the purchase, alterations and repairs of a building, in incidental charges, and in the purchase of books. The sum of ten thousand dollars remains subject to the ordinary purposes of the institution. The income from this balance, being insufficient, with the annual subscriptions of individuals, to meet the ordinary expenditures of the institution, the funds are, on this account, in a gradual state of diminution and decay. The greatness of the sum necessarily invested in a building, precludes the directors of it from making any important addition to their library, and thus one great object of their institution, the gradual accumulation of books, and thus extending the sphere of its usefulness, is in a great measure frustrated.

As this institution has, in appearance, the aspect of a private concern, your committee feel it incumbent upon them to state that it is, both in its origin and on the principles, on which it is conducted, almost exclusively, publick. The object of its establishment was to lay the foundation of a great publick library for the use and resort of all our citizens. It is capable of proof that of the one hundred

and fifty individuals, who subscribed the great sum, which constituted its original funds, more than one hundred have never received any personal benefit from it, other than what results to every citizen of the state from the promotion of literature and science. Being merchants, occupied in professional pursuits and having little time to devote to objects of general literature, their subscriptions can be viewed in no other light than that of benefactions, liberally granted on general principles for objects altogether of publick utility. All the citizens of the commonwealth are in fact admitted to the enjoyment of its advantages, upon terms more advantageous than the proprietors themselves, since admittance to annual subscription may be obtained for a sum one third less, than the interest of the capital paid for a share in the institution.

The Linnean Society is, at present, considered but as branch of the Atheneum. It is, however, one of the most laudable and flourishing institutions of our country. Its object is to collect a museum of natural history, particularly of the native animals, vegetables and minerals of this continent. It has existed only about a year, and the great progress it has made in its collections demonstrates the zeal, intelligence and learning of its members. The present value of this collection may be estimated at four thousand dollars, and it is constantly increasing. The further progress of this interesting institution is, at this moment, checked, by the want of a suitable place of deposit and arrangement.

Your committee are induced to say the less concerning the Agricultural Society of Massachusetts, because it has received a patronage from the legislature to the full extent of its wishes. It receives an annual sum from the government, which is expended, exclusively, for purposes having for their object the improvement and encouragement of agriculture; the nature and objects of which are ascertained previously to the sanction of the expenditure, by a committee of the legislature.

This society has also a library, small in point of number of volumes, but important to the agricultural interests of our country, which for want of other place, is now deposited in the Atheneum, liable to all the exposure to which, as has been stated, the library of that institution is subject. This society has also a considerable number of models of

approved machines for the use of agriculture, many of which have obtained the premiums of the society; but which, for want of room to exhibit them, are deposited in different places out of the sight and knowledge of the publick, whereby a great part of the advantages contemplated from obtaining them is lost. It ought, perhaps, to be noticed, that of all the officers of these different institutions, not one receives any pay or emolument for his services; nor have, at any time, any part of the funds or incomes been diverted to purposes of a private, or personal nature. On the contrary, in the discharge of their offices, they are exposed to labour and constant expense.

Having thus ascertained the state of those societies, which the order of the senate and house of representatives indicated, your committee deemed it their duty to direct their attention to the mode, in which legislative aid might be given, if any were required, for their further encouragement and advancement. They found on inquiry of the officers of those institutions that at present, no direct contribution to their funds was expected; but that one object was considered, unanimously, by those societies, as so important, and essential as to be absolutely indispensable, to the progress of all, and necessary, almost to the existence of some of them. This was a building proof against fire, sufficiently extensive to embrace all the present libraries and collections of the respective societies, and to leave room for that increase and expansion, which was now rapidly advancing. The concentration of all these libraries and monuments of science and art was essential not only to their safety, (since some of them, if lost it was impossible to replace,) but highly important to the promotion of the general objects, to which all those societies were devoted. Their present dispersed and restricted state cramped the members in all their operations; and by rendering resort to them difficult, in a great measure deprived the publick of the advantages of the use of those libraries and collections, which if properly located they could, with facility, command. Besides, could they be brought under one roof, the resources of each society might be combined in the support of proper persons to superintend the whole establishment, whereby not only access to them would be rendered more general and easy to the publick, but their management more perfect and economical. It was agreed, unani-

mously, by all the societies, that such was the state of their respective funds, and private munificence had been so frequently taxed and was so much exhausted, that, if legislative aid were denied, there was no hope of obtaining such a building.

This state of the interests of these societies, has led your committee to turn their attention to the duty and interest of the commonwealth, in relation to this subject and to the means and principles, on which an object of such general importance and concern might be effected.

Your committee refrain from making any remarks relative to the duty and interests of a state to patronize and encourage the exertions of literary men, particularly where these have for their objects the collection and preservation of literary works, and of monuments destined to promote and improve the arts, the manufactures, the agriculture, and the natural and political history of a country. The principles relating to these topicks are so general and to such men as compose the state legislature so familiar, that to repeat them would be useless. For like reasons your committee do not deem themselves justified in recapitulating the examples on the continent of Europe, with which the history of both ancient and modern times abounds, of the patronage extended by states and nations to institutions, similar in their nature and character. Nor will they recur to the fact, as obvious as it is encouraging, that the greatness and prosperity of states have always been proportionate to the degree, in which publick patronage, of the nature contemplated, has been extended to such institutions. They ask leave, however, to state, one or two facts, in relation to some of our neighbouring states, which may place before the legislature the conduct of cotemporary governments, and exhibit the comparative patronage extended by Massachusetts to these publick objects, in a light well suited to excite a sentiment of honourable emulation; and which may lead to an enlarged policy, worthy of her political, physical and statistical importance.

More than fifteen years since, the state of Pennsylvania granted to Mr. Peale, the proprietor of a private museum, the free use of the whole of their state house and land adjoining, comprising an area and a mass of buildings, which, considering its local situation, in the centre of Philadelphia cannot be estimated at less than two hundred

thousand dollars. This building he has from that time to the present, occupied free of all rent or interest. An amount of patronage more than thirty times greater, in each year, than the legislature of Massachusetts have ever extended to all the literary societies abovementioned, in the whole course of their existence. Yet these societies have been engaged in collections, exclusively publick. Whereas those of Mr. Peale were for his own private emolument and directed exclusively to that object, and in which the publick had no farther interest than what results from the general duty of patronizing enterprise and merit; and the interest, which the legislature of Pennsylvania deemed itself to have in preserving, in the metropolis of that state, a collection of specimens of natural objects at once so useful and valuable.

The legislature of New-York, in addition to the many and great endowments it has granted to the universities of that state, purchased in 1810, Dr. Hosack's botanick garden, for which it paid *eighty thousand dollars*.

To the medical society of that state it has granted at two different periods, a sum amounting in the whole to *fifty thousand dollars*, besides an annuity of five hundred dollars.

To the New-York Historical society it granted in 1814, soon after its establishment, *twelve thousand dollars*. All the above sums were direct payments out of the treasury of the state. It cannot be doubted that both those states have already derived and are deriving a reward equal to the whole value of their liberality, in the encouragement, which, by these and other instances of their munificence, has been given to the arts and sciences, with whose protection and extension the prosperity and reputation of all states are essentially connected. The resort of five hundred medical students to the city of Philadelphia, some of them from the remotest parts of the union, must very materially contribute to the prosperity of the metropolis, and to the reputation and grandeur of the state.

Your committee cannot here refrain from observing, that the citizens of Massachusetts have been distinguished beyond the citizens of either New-York, or Pennsylvania, indeed of any other state, for the number and amount of their contributions to literary institutions. Yet by a strange fatality, the patronage they have received from the legislature of Massachusetts is incomparably less than that, which

similar institutions have received from the legislatures of other states. To this it may be said, and truly, that none of these institutions have ever, heretofore, directly applied to this legislature for such patronage. And it is on the present occasion a fact, peculiarly grateful to your committee, that this investigation originated wholly from the liberal suggestion of the legislature, without any solicitation from those societies. A circumstance, which cannot fail to render any patronage it may see fit to bestow, doubly gratifying to those societies, as well as honourable to the state.

Your committee have therefore deemed it their duty to suggest to the legislature, the expediency of adopting measures for concentrating as soon as possible those societies, their libraries and collections, in one central and convenient place, and to provide for them a publick building, which should be the property of the state, and the use of which should be granted to these societies upon certain distinct principles.

For the purchase of the land and erecting a building sufficiently safe and capacious for the objects proposed, the sum of Fifty Thousand Dollars was deemed requisite, and in the opinion of all the officers of those societies would be adequate.

In relation to the mode in which such a sum could be obtained, three courses were suggested:—The grant of eastern land;—A lottery;—And the permission to raise, on the credit of the commonwealth, the requisite amount at an interest of five per cent.

Should the legislature be of opinion that the interests of the commonwealth required that the property of these institutions should be taken under its protection, it seemed desirable that as little delay as possible should be permitted to occur before it was extended. For such a purpose, the grant of eastern land was dilatory and inefficient. The same objections occurred to the proposition of a lottery; besides the many others which naturally arise to this mode of raising funds for publick purposes. It resulted, that either the idea of efficient protection for these monuments of science and the arts must be abandoned, or a resort be had to the proposition for a loan. As your committee were satisfied that this was the only mode both practicable and efficient, they have deemed it their duty to present a bill modified upon that principle, for the consideration of the

legislature; and also embracing principles, not only extending protection and encouragement to the property and exertions of these societies, but securing to the state privileges in relation to them, highly beneficial and important.

Your committee will not conceal, that, in common with other members of the legislature, they feel a repugnance at the idea of a debt to be created. Yet a little consideration has made it apparent to them that this debt will be scarcely more than nominal, and that it is justified by maxims of prudence as well as by calculations of publick profit. The debt is but nominal, inasmuch as the whole expenditure will be invested in lands and buildings, which are to be the property of the commonwealth. The amount of the actual burden will be five and twenty hundred dollars a year, for so long a time as the state shall permit these societies to enjoy the occupation of the building. In return for which patronage, the libraries, the collections, the monuments of the arts abovementioned, will be rescued from their present state of insecurity, and comparative inutility, and placed in a condition not only of safety, but of increased usefulness. All these, are, in name, the property of these societies, but in fact, the whole is publick property, expressly devoted upon the most liberal principles to publick use; of which these societies are but trustees for the commonwealth.

In the present situation of these libraries and collections, exertion is in a great degree deprived of its stimulus, by the danger to which they are exposed, as well as cramped for want of room suitable for their deposit. Should the protection suggested be granted, it cannot be questioned that the natural and inevitable increase of this publick property under such new and favourable auspices, would, in the course of ten years, greatly exceed the whole amount of the principal and interest of the expenditure contemplated; without taking into consideration, the irreparable nature of the loss, if for want of the proposed protection they should be destroyed; and without making any estimate of the honour, which would result to the commonwealth should they, thus, be protected.

Under impressions of this kind, your committee ask leave to report the annexed bill for the consideration of the legislature.

By order of the Committee,
JOSIAH QUINCY, *Chairman.*

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

[THE Falls of Niagara have been often described; but the battles that have been fought in their vicinity, and the various fortune which influenced the events of the late war, have given a strong additional interest to the scenery. We are particularly flattered in being able to communicate the following extracts, from the journal of a traveller who visited the Lakes last summer. There are several remarks that strongly depict the hurry of the feelings, the dizzying emotion, and the confounding grandeur of the scene, and we think the reader will perceive some picturesque circumstances in the account of the cataract, that have not before been noticed. We wish we could give the additional gratification of engravings, from some of the admirable drawings sketched on the spot by the writer.]

Niagara River has a great deal to offer to the lover of Nature, and a new interest has been added to its shores, since they became the theatre of war. The traces of desolation are now visible to the most unobserving eye; and many a spot is pointed out, which was lately the scene of heroick achievement, or of memorable death. This river connects two of the finest lakes in the world, Erie and Ontario. Near its head, where it receives the waters of Lake Erie, on the American side, is the town of Buffaloe; and the ruins of Fort Erie are scattered on the opposite shore.

Eighteen months ago, not a house was left standing in Buffaloe. The men who sought shelter in the neighbouring wood, were taken prisoners or killed by the Indians, who lay there in ambush; and the women and children fled through the snows of winter, beyond the Genessee River. Such of the inhabitants as survived, have returned with spring and with peace, to rekindle their extinguished hearths. Buildings, of an improved exterior, cover the ashes of their former dwellings, and the town has already assumed the busy and compact appearance, which distinguished it before its destruction. These buildings are at present entirely unfinished within, but they afford a comfortable summer residence, and each will have several apartments completed before the approach of winter.

The point on which Fort Erie is situated, is sandy, with a few straggling houses and little cultivation. A small part

of the front wall of the fort, with an entrance in the centre, is nearly entire. The north east bastion was blown up, and its fragments are found at the water's edge. The others are in ruins, and the ditch is half filled with water. Near the fort, on its north side, is a common grave, where Colonel Drummond, and a large number of the slain on both sides, are interred. At a little distance to the south west, are the remains of Towson's battery, and behind* the fort is the wood, where the British encamped when they besieged the fort. The American traveller can never visit this spot without emotion; he will look round for some one who can describe to him, minutely, the unexpected explosion, and the brilliant sortie, who can point out the deep ravine and the difficult and till then impassable wood. He will examine the trees that are shattered, and the ground that has been torn up by the balls and rockets, on their passage from the British camp to the fort. He will water the roses that are already growing on the soldier's grave. In a few years, however, this ruin will be indiscriminately mingled with the soil; or a new fort will stand in its place. New branches and new foliage will cover the dismantled trunk of the forest tree. The storm will have levelled these sandy graves, with the beach, on which they are thrown up. The recollections of misery and the impulses of revenge, will be chased from the mind, by the blessings of peace, and the sympathies of friendly intercourse. Then will the curious and feeling traveller seek in vain for those vestiges of the war, either on the face of the country, or in the hearts of its inhabitants, and there will be none remaining, who have witnessed these transactions.

Black Rock is nearly three miles below Buffaloe, on the same side of the river. There is a road to it along the beach, which in warm weather is very pleasant. A small part of it is through a wood, the rest on the edge of the water. A fresh breeze comes across its surface, which is blue and transparent. Graves are scattered along the beach, and the sand is so lightly thrown in, that it appears as if the wind would blow this covering from the sacred deposit within. Just above Black Rock, the Niagara commences. The margin of the river at this place is a low ledge of black

* The wood is north from Towson's battery. The wood west, is the part where General Porter cut a road and marched his troops to attack British battery No. 3.

rock, from which the town takes its name. A steep hill rises abruptly from the shore, on which there are two forts, Fort Gibson and Fort Adams. At a little distance is the scite of General Porter's house. This large stone building, and many a comfortable log hut, were destroyed at the same time with Buffaloe. There is but little cleared land about this place. The eminence commands a view of Fort Erie and of the Lake, stretching out to a vast expanse and in the distance losing its blue outline in the sky. On the right are seen the Niagara, several small islands and Grand Island beyond.

Along the upper division of the river the banks are not lofty, but they present together with the islands, a varied and beautiful line on the water's edge. The Canadian side of the river is cleared, and in some parts well cultivated. The American shore is still covered with wood. Oak, Maple, Elm, Butternut, Walnut and Cedar trees prevail. Now and then a log hut and cleared field gleam amidst the forest; but the black stumps, around which the wheat is waving, show that the sun has for a few years only, shed his unobstructed rays on the soil. The river is divided into two branches by Grand Island, which extends more than two thirds of the distance from Erie to the Falls. This island is low and uncleared. Beyond this is Navy Island; and Goat Island, which divides the falls, and many smaller islands. The bed of the river descends gradually, till within two miles of the falls, and forms a gentle current. Here the aspect of its shores is tranquil. The faint mist which is seen above the trees of Grand Island, and the distant roar, which strikes only the listening ear, show that the danger and commotion are far below. But on approaching the Falls, the scene changes. The roar deepens, the spray rises a lofty column of vapour in the heavens, the *rapids*, which commence about a mile above the brink of the Falls, now shew their white heads, and the current increases its force so fast, as to threaten to bear the frail bark along with it, to the Cataract. The sublimity of this scene is frequently heightened by a thunder storm. There is a landing and wharf a mile and an half above the Falls at Schlosser, and below this, navigation is impracticable. The houses and stores at this place were destroyed by the enemy. On the Canadian side, opposite to Schlosser, is Chippewa, which is a small settlement, with a *harbour*, and some bar-

racks, in which a few soldiers are stationed. In consequence of a bend in the river on this side, it is two miles and an half by the road from Chippewa to the falls. A mile below, is Bridgwater and the ruins of some large mills, which were destroyed by the Americans after the battle of Lundy's Lane. Amongst these ruins there is a burning spring, the waters of which appear to emit sulphuretted hydrogen gas. This gas does not take fire spontaneously, and continues burning a short time only after it is kindled.

At last you arrive at the falls. Many circumstances tend to heighten their effect. The path, by which Table rock is approached, is dark, winding, and precipitous. That which leads to the east fall is through a cleared wood, along the edge of the rapids, of which there are frequent glimpses. On this side are seen a number of small Islands along the brink of the Falls; all resembling vessels in their form; some of them have the outline and nearly the size of a large ship. The rapidity of the water communicates to them the appearance of motion. You fancy this green fleet to be sailing down the stream, and expect every moment, to see it plunge along with the torrent, to the gulf below. The fall is divided into two unequal portions by Goat Island, the face of which is a bare perpendicular rock, of the heighth and character of the precipice over which the river rolls. It is narrow, (330 yards wide,) but extends one third of a mile up the river, covered with lofty trees, whose tops catch the hues of sunset, long after the little Islands in front are lost in its shadows.

The old cedar tree on this side, from which there is so fine a view of the falls, is a sufficiently dangerous station, to excite powerful emotion. At a point, advancing a little way over the River, 10 or 15 feet below the top of the bank, the trunk of this tree projects about 30 feet in a horizontal direction. A birch tree runs out a little above, parallel with it, and serves for a railing. The branches beyond the centre, form a secure seat, but on advancing towards it, the roots shake and appear ready to relinquish their ancient hold on the soil. From this romantick seat, suspended in the mist, 150 feet above the bed of the river, there is a profile view of the east fall, a front one of the horse shoe, with Goat Island, Table Rock and the foam beneath. There is no other than a profile view of the east fall, on this side. The ladder which was formerly here, was

thrown down during the war, and now lies at the foot of the precipice. The descent, however, is practicable without it. The path winds down the bank of the River, on an abrupt and almost perpendicular rock, of so unequal a face, as to afford a sufficient hold for the hands and feet, while the roots and branches which hang over most of the way, give an additional security. To this steep Cliff succeeds a bed of loose stones, and still lower are the slippery rocks, which rise immediately from the water's edge.

The ladder on the Canadian side, is entire, and reaches about half the distance, from the top of the bank to the water. The remainder of the way is over loose stones, which afford a very uncertain footing, where it is difficult to stand, and might be fatal to fall. The upper strata of the rock project far beyond the foot of the precipice forming an immense arch. Trees, shrubs, and vines hang over the top, and give a beautiful, though, at the distance at which they are viewed, a narrow fringe, to its brow. Little springs which rise in the ground above are continually dropping from this impending arch, far beyond the adventurer, who creeps cautiously over the loose stones at the foot of the rock. Other streams issue from fissures in the rock, and have deposited their layers of sulphur on the surface over which they run. If any one could reflect, amidst a scene so completely confounding, he would perceive that the loose stones like those over which he is passing must frequently descend, from the projection above, and that the smallest of these, from so great a height would crush the head on which it fell. I learned after I came up, that half an hour before, a quantity of stones had fallen a few feet only from the spot where I sat to take a sketch of the Falls. At that time I was alone. The fishermen who had been busy on the Rocks and even at the mouth of the Cavern, when we descended, were now returned, with their baskets filled. My friends, having engraved the scene on their memory, were not interested in obtaining a less perfect, though more communicable impression of it. When I found myself in this situation, the roar deepened,* the rock shook over my head,

* Great God of Nature! whose blest sun and showers,
Call into action these tremendous powers,
Where shall my tongue fit force of language find,
To speak the dread sensations of the mind;
When o'er the impending brink, in bounding sweep,
The eye pursued this deluge to the deep,

the earth trembled, with the sound and motion of an earthquake ; the elevation of the fall increased ; it seemed tumbling from the heavens : The foam rose in more fantastick shapes, and the whole assumed to my imagination an overwhelming aspect. It was some time before I could command my pencil. I felt a sensation of awe which I could not long endure, and I hastened to return to a state of things more familiar, more on a level with myself. I rejoiced on arriving at the top, to find the rays of the sun once more falling on me ; for though it was only a little past mid-day, the arched precipice cast a cold and awful shadow beneath.

The difficulty of the descent on either side, is in perfect congruity with the scene. Indeed it should not be by a smooth and secure path, that the enthusiastick traveller arrives at the Falls of Niagara. His soul must be tuned by danger, obstruction, and novelty of situation, before it can be capable of the pitch to which it ought to be raised by this spectacle. The deep cavern, between the sheet of water and the rock, into which he penetrates, through a storm that is continually generating and bursting, from within, confounding every sense, and even that of feeling, with darkness and noise and motion. The torrent pouring from a height, which the eye cannot reach, filling the air with this mighty tumult of roar and foam and wind !—In this situation should his eye turn on himself, (although that is hardly possible) what an insect does he appear in the midst of this wonderful scene.

A high hill rises on the Canadian shore, at a short distance from the River. In order to reach Table Rock, it is necessary to descend this hill, which is very steep, and pass over a marsh, on which poles are laid to designate the course. Often winding over stones and marshy ground through brushwood amidst lofty trees, the path suddenly emerges to the day, and the whole scene bursts on the sight. Here the view is complete, although too vast to be taken

> Saw its white torrents undulating pour
> From heaven to earth, with deaf'ning, crashing roar ;
> Dash'd in the wild and torn abyss below,
> 'Midst dazzling foam and whirling storms of snow.
> "While the whole monstrous mass, and country round,
> Shook, as with horrour, at the o'erwhelming sound."

"This," says Wilson, the author of the Foresters and the American Ornithology, "is literally true. In the house where we lodged, which is more than half a mile from the falls, the vibrations of a fork, stuck in the board, partition were plainly observable across the room." Port Folio, vol. 3, p. 186.

in at once. Before you, are the Horse shoe, Goat Island, and the east fall ; on the right the Canadian shore, as far as Chippewa, cultivated and fertile, interspersed with houses, gardens and rich foliage. Opposite, the American shore, crowned with lofty forest trees, and in the distance below, the river gliding away in so unruffled a course, that one can hardly believe it has just issued from this abyss of commotion. Here the east fall, which appears so immense on the other side, shrinks in comparison with the horse shoe, and seems but an accompaniment to this principal branch of the River. The height of the fall on the American side, is between 160 and 170 feet, and its width about a quarter of a mile. The British is 150 feet high, and its width not quite half a mile. Table Rock is a single stratum of lime stone, about a foot thick ; projecting several yards beyond the perpendicular precipice, and hanging over the gulf below. It inclines a little from a horizontal level. Here you may sit on the edge, with your feet over the chasm, and dip your hand in the torrent as it rushes over the brink. You fancy that the rock losing its slight hold, is sliding with you, down the precipice. You believe that you could sail on those clouds of vapour which are rolling around, and are almost tempted to make the experiment.

The eagle is often seen here, flying in the mist, while his nest, secure in the unapproachable clefts of Goat Island, is rocked by the torrent, which shakes by a slight but continual earthquake, the adjacent shores.

The prismatick colours are reflected from the spray, in different positions, varying as the sun advances in his course. At morning and evening, a high arch spans the whole scene. Towards noon, the rainbow floats on the surface below, and sometimes the foam refracting to the eye only the red rays, appears like a bed of roses on a field of snow.

It was sunset when we first visited Table Rock. We lingered there, till not a purple tint remained on the column of mist, which rose high on the still air. There is such a flood of light reflected from this mass of white foam, that the falls are distinct, long after every other object is obscured. On returning, our path through the wood and marsh was hardly discernible ; but when we reached the top of the hill, a warm flush still coloured the west, and the evening star shed on us its brightest beam. This scene of tranquil beauty formed a fine contrast with the tremendous

one we had just quitted; a contrast peculiarly grateful to our tired minds, which had expanded to their utmost limits of perception and emotion. Nearly a mile back of the Horse shoe Fall, is Lundy's Laneor heights, where the battle, commonly called the battle of Bridgewater, was fought. It is an extensive elevated plain with some small eminences.

General Brown having been disappointed in the co-operation of the fleet which he had expected, changed his plan of operations and fell back from Queenstown to Chippewa. On the 25th July, 1814, the British collecting their forces, marched up the river and were met near Lundys' Lane, by a detachment under General Scott—an engagement immediately commenced. As soon as intelligence of this reached the camp, Generals Porter and Ripley pressed forward to his support, but General Scott gallantly sustained the conflict an hour before their arrival. The whole army was soon engaged; still the British force, commanded by Generals Riall and Drummond, was superiour. The battle began about sunset, and lasted till midnight, and is considered the most bloody which was fought during the war. Generals Brown and Scott were severely wounded, but did not quit the field.

The eager combatants were unmindful of the departure of day. The half orbed moon was high in the heavens at its close, and shed a pale and doubtful light on the scene. Her rays were brightly reflected, from the polished arms of the front ranks of the British, while broad shadows concealed the mass behind. Reinforcements arrived to the British, but the Americans could not ascertain their numbers. They opposed and cut down fresh troops, which advanced on them, but saw not and considered not the force in reserve. The enemy's artillery possessed a height of great importance; colonel Miller was ordered to dislodge them. The regiment which was to support him fell back. Still colonel Miller advanced through the indistinctness of this light and shade. Bursts of fire flashed across the scene, from the mouths of those engines of destruction, and his mind collected at a glance rapid and luminous, as the lightening of the artillery, all the information requisite for decision and execution.—The height and the cannon were no longer in the possession of the British.

During this night of horrour and destruction, the thunder of the cannon was lost in the roar of the torrent, and the

earth was shaken, by a mightier force than the discharge of artillery or the trampling of the war horse; and when the battle raged no more, and the moon on the verge of the sky ceased to throw her light on the dismal spectacle, the few who escaped unhurt, listened in vain for the well known voice, which should enable them to distinguish their wounded companions, amongst the heaps of slain. That awful stillness, broken only by the low moaning of the wounded and dying, which succeeds the tumult of battle, had here no place. Every sound was confounded in the noise of the torrent, which has for ages passed over the precipice.

This field of the battle of Niagara, is certainly a spot of as much interest as any our country affords. Its proximity to the Falls of Niagara, the time at which it was fought, the numerous instances of individual heroism, the general valour of our troops, the superiour and well disciplined force which they encountered and discomfited, and the immense proportion of dead and wounded which were found on the field, offer a combination rarely to be met with.

Two miles and a half below the Falls on the east side, there is a beautiful view of them. Near this spot is a spring strongly impregnated with sulphur; a small stream flows from it through a wood, tinging in its windings, every thing it approaches. A mile below this is a whirlpool. A point projects into the river, and forms a basin into which the water is drawn, producing a counter current. The river thus thrown on a rocky craggy bottom, whirls round, draws down every thing within its influence, and after some time, dashes it up again shivered to atoms. The river is narrower at this point, below the whirlpool, than in any part of its course, being less than one fourth of a mile across.

The name of the settlement on the United States' side of the Falls, is Manchester; that of the town on the Canadian side, Stamford. Lewistown, seven miles below Manchester, was burnt during the war, which was the case with most of the buildings at Manchester and on the road between.

The banks of the river retain their rocky, precipitous character, as far as Queenstown heights. Here they suddenly descend to a level margin, softening away in the distance, till they meet Lake Ontario. The view from this summit is very fine. On the top is a fort, and in the valley below, a village.

Navigation, which was interrupted by the falls, recommences here. The river, which has been so long imprisoned by precipices, escaped from the lofty walls, spreads out to its former breadth, and widens in its progress to the Lake.

Fort George on the British, and Fort Niagara on the American side, are situate six miles below Queenstown, at the mouth of the river. There is no settlement at Fort Niagara. Near Fort George are the ruins of Newark. This town, once so flourishing, ornamented with fine houses, and publick buildings, gardens and orchards, is now a scene of desolation the most complete which the border presents. It is melancholy to think of the unnecessary destruction of this thriving town. There was hardly a man in the place. Women and children were its only inhabitants, and their houses were plundered and burnt in the month of December. Not a fence or a fruit tree are left standing, and the ground is overgrown with weeds. Mud hovels, log huts and unfinished buildings afford a temporary residence to the inhabitants, amidst the ruins of their former happy homes.

July, 1815.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

The subject of a monument to Washington, was introduced in the Senate during the late session of the Legislature. The resolves which passed that body, authorized the governour to appoint three commissioners to carry the object into effect, and appropriated five thousand dollars for the purpose. It came down to the House very late in the session, and was referred to the next meeting of the Legislature. As the war is now over, publick attention may be again excited on this point, and the gratitude of the state after so long talking about it, may at length shew its sincerity in the execution of this honourable design. We shall offer some little development of some of the hints contained in this report.

This act of state policy, as well as justice and gratitude, having been deferred so long, it should not now be undertaken rashly and hastily. The plan should be fully considered, and if it be possible, a monument in honour of Washington, should also do honour to the good taste and

judgment of those who erect it. We have no objects to serve as models or warnings; and therefore those who have never seen any piece of monumental architecture or sculpture, should not be too arbitrary in their decisions about the design of objects, of whose comparative effect, they can form only an imperfect idea from paintings or descriptions. When it is said, that the monument should do honour to the state and town, *if possible*, the phrase will not be thought extravagant, when it is considered, how few of the vast number of monuments in Europe can stand the test of criticism, and how few architectural productions even approach towards perfection. An eminent personage has said, that "the Genius of Architecture had almost cast his malediction on the country;" and the Genius of Sculpture has not been hitherto more propitious.

The report of the committee observes, that the plan of a monument may be divided into two parts, a statue or an architectural monument. It is most desirable that both these should be executed; that the state in pursuance of a former vote should erect the statue; and that the private fund now amounting to about nine thousand dollars, should be further increased, so as to elevate some grand architectural design. Our own artists should be offered the preference. A sufficient time should be allowed for them to consider the subject maturely, and send in their plans, and some premiums should be given to excite their attention to the object, and reward two or three of the most meritorious designs among the unsuccessful ones. The artist whose plan should be accepted, would receive his reward, in being employed to execute the work.

The monuments which have been erected within a few years in Westminster Abbey, St. Paul's, and Guildhall, by a vote of Parliament, or at the expense of the city of London, have cost from three to ten thousand pounds sterling. Some of these monuments consist only of a single figure, with an inscription and *bassi relievi*, others contain besides the statue of the individual to whom it is erected, allegorical figures, and *bassi relievi*, so that three or four statues of the size of life are contained in a single monument, which may cover two hundred square feet and upwards. The marble used in England is brought from Italy, indeed the finest marble used by modern sculptors of every country, is the marble of Carrara. There are marble quarries worked

in many parts of the United States, but none has yet been found sufficiently pure and fine, for the higher purposes of sculpture.* The cost of a statue would mainly depend on the pay of the artist. Canova received 6000 dollars from Joseph Buonaparte for his beautiful little statue of Hebe; the Banker Tolonia at Rome paid him 10,000 crowns for the statue of Hercules, independent of the cost of the marble and accompaniments. The Pope paid nearly the same sum for the statue of Perseus, to replace the Belvidere Apollo while that statue was at Paris. French and English artists of inferiour merit to this celebrated Italian, receive as high, or perhaps higher prices for their productions.

In this country the cost of execution would be less. Genius in Europe is nobly rewarded, while ordinary labour pines on the minimum of subsistence. In this country it is the reverse; truth and justice lie between.† We have artists of our own, who would be capable of executing this statue. Three may be named, Allston, Morse, and Willard, who could furnish models, though they have never worked in marble; but this is a mechanical operation, and there are several marble cutters, who could assist in executing the work. Perhaps also, Mr. West, the venerable President of the English Academy, the first of American, as well as of European artists, might undertake this object, in which his love of his country, and his veneration of Washington would make him engage with enthusiasm. Mr. West does not work in marble, but he models in a species of composition, the use of which is increasing in England.

* Porphyry, Jasper, Serpentine, Breccias, and many other stones, classed by the Italians under the general term of *pietri duri*, which hold an intermediate rank between the precious stones and marbles, are found in great variety and beauty in the United States. Many quarries of marble also are worked in different places; but hitherto they have been of rather coarse grain, well suited to the purposes of architecture, but not fine enough for the wants of sculpture. Since these pages were written, we have seen two specimens of white marble from a quarry recently discovered in Middlebury, Vermont, which are of the purest white, and the most delicate and homogeneous substance. It is said that blocks of it eight feet square can be easily obtained; if this be correct, the country possesses a marble as beautiful as that of Carrara, and the proprietors will find it to bear a high price in Europe.

† The *assistant doorkeepers* of the legislature, are paid three dollars a day; the *governour and commander in chief*, receives rather more than double this sum.

After the figures are prepared, they are baked in ovens, and are then indestructible, by either fire or water. Mr. West executed in this way two years since, an extensive allegorical monument in *alto relievo*, to the memory of Lord Nelson, which was placed in Greenwich Hospital. A single statue on a plain pedestal could, without doubt, be erected for the sum appropriated by the resolve of the Senate. A further advantage attending a statue of this kind as mentioned in the report, would be derived in taking casts from it in Plaster, and giving one to each county in the state.

With regard to an equestrian statue, which is with many a favourite object, it is perhaps, at present almost impracticable to erect one. It is one of the highest and most difficult efforts of art, and would probably cost fifty thousand dollars. If, however, it should be resolved to have a statue of this kind, there are but few situations in Boston where it can be advantageously placed; one of these would be in front of the State-House, another in the Common, at a point nearly equidistant from the Mall, Park-street, and Beacon-street. Some persons have thought that the best situation would be the scite of the old State-House. But this opinion is taken up without sufficient reflection. The first great objection is, that you must commence your operation by the destruction of a building worth fifty thousand dollars. The same statue would therefore cost 50,000 dollars more there, than in any other place; there should be some great advantage to compensate for this; but if no such sacrifice were necessary, it would still be one of the worst spots that could be selected. An equestrian statue should be either placed in some extensive square, where the space that surrounds it, will give a degree of dignity suited to these pompous efforts of art, or should stand in front of some splendid palace or publick building. In the location now spoken of, it would be encompassed with ordinary brick buildings, and shops, would always be surrounded with carts, and could hardly ever be observed with advantage. The constant passage of people, and vehicles of all kinds in the most crowded and busy part of the town, would always distract the attention, and prevent the eye from considering it attentively. To view a statue to advantage, it must be seen without the intervention of passing objects, to disturb the tranquillity of the spec-

tator. This is proved by the equestrian statue of Charles at Charing Cross. It is by far the best statue among half a dozen of the kind in London, yet few persons are ever able to observe it attentively; it is surrounded by carts and intercepted by the eternal bustle of the streets, though the avenue in front, Whitehall, is perhaps the most magnificent street in London. Indeed the different effect of statues in the open air in Rome, or even Paris, and London, is very great; in the latter city they certainly produce but little pleasure. Whether this be owing to the chill and murky atmosphere, in which they are for so many months involved, may be uncertain; but from the sorry, despicable figure of Queen Anne in front of St. Pauls, and the noble, bronze, pedestrian statue of the late Duke of Bedford in Russel Square; with the various equestrian statues in different squares, six or seven in number, the lover of the Arts, and still less the common observer, derive but little satisfaction. Perhaps also by a very natural association, we should pity the poor statues exposed to the frosts and snows of our winters, but under our brilliant skies at other seasons of the year, they might be seen with as much delight, as in the fine climate of Greece.*

If an architectural monument be resolved on, the principal forms are the pyramid, the obelisk, the triumphal arch and the column. The two former were peculiar to the Egyptians, and may be considered beyond the power of any modern nation. Of the pyramids, with the exception of the tomb of Caius Cestius near the walls of Rome, and which is wholly insignificant when compared with the Egyptian masses, there are no other monuments of this kind, but those imperishable ones, on the banks of the Nile. And here, if the reflection will be excused, is it not worthy of admiration; that the most ancient, the most durable monument of human labour, on the surface of the globe, is a tomb! The residences of royal magnificence, the fortresses of national safety, the sacred temples of the Deity, "the cloud-capt towers and gorgeous palaces," have vanished "like the baseless fabrick of a vision;" while these gigantick structures which must endure, "till the great globe itself shall be dissolved," were

* We have seen a very handsome plan by Mr. Willard, for a new entrance in front of the State House, to be built of granite with iron railings, and the centre to be surmounted with the proposed equestrian statue of Washington.

only raised through the toil of ages, and the labours of millions, to conceal the poor dust of human vanity!

The only arguments in favour of pyramidal monuments, are their austere simplicity and extreme durability. The latter however, was owing to the almost incredible labour which was bestowed in their construction, and negatively to the climate. With the present prices of labour and subsistence, no nation in modern times, could have prepared the endless blocks of granite with the nice exactness of their fitting, that compose the pyramids of Egypt. And perhaps if they had stood in a country exposed to frost, the effects of ice, little by little in the lapse of ages, would have opened and ruined their surface. If a monument of this kind should be thought of on this occasion, it should be recollected, that, it can only be rendered respectable by its size. An advantageous situation should be selected for it. The hills at South Boston will not do, because they are two, and steep in ascent. The hill must be insulated as much as possible from others, and not difficult of access. The hill in Dorchester north of the Meeting House, the hill at Chelsea near the Ferry, or the eminence on which Fort Strong stands are the only suitable ones near the town, and to all of them the stone may be brought very near by water. The effect of a *small* pyramid may be seen (and so far as effect is concerned, deplored,) at any time, on an Island in the lower harbour.

The Obelisk is another of the inventions of the Egyptians, and which has never been attempted by any other people. There are no other quarries known in the world, besides those of Upper Egypt, which can produce such enormous blocks of granite. Five or six of these Obelisks are standing in Rome, one of them is one hundred and sixty feet high, *of a single piece*, and covered with Hieroglyphicks. The Egyptians cut these prodigious masses from their quarries, transported them to their cities, and elevated them. The Romans took them away, brought them down the Nile on rafts, coasted along the shores of the Mediterranean, ascended the Tiber, and erected them in Rome.—They were thrown down in the sacking of that city by the Barbarians; and it was considered a wonderful effort in the Popes, merely to raise them up again. An object so slender as an obelisk would be of no great duration if formed of different pieces, indeed its magnificence mainly consists in its being of

one piece. This species of monument then, is completely out of the question.*

There remain the Triumphal Arch and the Column. Both these kind of monuments have been adopted by different nations. There are in Rome three or four Triumphal Arches, which, though they are in ruins, are still sufficiently entire, to give a very perfect idea of their original condition. One of these is the Arch of Titus, erected for his conquest of Jerusalem, and which it is said the Jews to this day never go through, but always pass a passage by its side. The symbols of the Jewish religion, the golden candlesticks, the ark of the Covenant, &c. are still to be seen in reliefs upon it. Louis XIVth constructed two in Paris, and Napoleon undertook two, one only of which is completed. The gates of fortified towns have been sometimes adapted to this purpose, but, as the people of any unfortified town would, if they understood their own interests, sooner set fire to their houses and abandon it, than suffer it to be surrounded with walls and exposed to sieges, this form cannot be adopted here. It may be made use of as a monument only, but, to appear advantageously, it should be accompanied with regular and extensive edifices. Such Arches should always be seen at a distance from a long avenue, and are generally placed at the entrance of Cities. The upper part of Charlestown, Cambridge Port, and Washington street, are the principal entrances to the Capital, and offer the most advantageous scites. Of the three, Washington street presents the most advantages. If it were placed on the rising part of the street not far from the line of Roxbury, it would then have a wide avenue into the town of more than half a mile, and on the other side, Roxbury street may be hereafter straightened, so as to run to the entrance of the Dedham Turnpike, this

* There are now lying near Alexandria two obelisks, vulgarly called the needles of Cleopatra. They were buried in the sand. When the English army were in Egypt, it was suggested that they should get up one of these obelisks, to be transported to England and placed in some square on the banks of the Thames, a durable monument of their success. This noble idea was entered into cheerfully, the soldiers volunteered their services, and after great labour it was raised and laid horizontally on rollers to be embarked in an old 64 that had been got ready for the purpose. A new and valuable naval commander intervened, (if we remember right, the polished Lord K.) and swore "that his Majesty's ships were not meant to carry stones"—and thus this classick plan of triumph, which could have injured no one, was rendered abortive.

would give nearly half a mile of approach in a straight line, on the other side. These Triumphal Arches are usually composed of three arches, one wide in the centre for carriages, and two smaller side ones for foot passengers. But the effect of an object of this kind is nearly destroyed, if it be not surrounded with regular and imposing buildings. Placed amid mean and straggling houses, it would be degraded. Should such an Arch be placed on Washington street, and two hospitals or a hospital and an arsenal be constructed on opposite sides near it, there would be a great effect of grandeur, arising from extensive symmetry produced from it.

Monumental columns have been erected by both ancient and modern nations. There are two in Rome, the Trajan and Antonine Columns, the latter is plain ; the former magnificently decorated through the whole length of its shaft, with *bassi relievi* winding in a spiral line. It is composed of white marble. Its effect is considerably impaired by the rise of the ground in that part of the City, its base was completely buried. It has been dug round so as to clear it to the ancient pavement, which is eighteen feet below the modern pavement ; so much is taken from its height, that its effect is considerably impaired ; the area in which it stands is also too small, the same may be said of the square of the Antonine pillar. The only column in Paris, was one erected by Napoleon in the Place Vendome, exactly after the model of the Trajan column. It was covered with the history of his victories executed in spiral bronze plates of *bassi relievi*, his statue was placed on the top. In London there is a Column, "pointing to the skies," of white free stone, erected in commemoration of the great fire, and which is the largest monument of the kind in the world. It is placed on the side of a narrow street perpetually thronged, surrounded with dingy brick houses, and in so small an area that its effect is almost destroyed. It is two hundred and two feet in height.

In placing a column, two situations present themselves, the one designated by the Committee, and Fort Hill. The latter, however, is surrounded with houses which would hide the lower part of it, the space is too small for an object of great magnitude, and the labour of carrying the materials to the top of the hill, would be a serious obstacle. Before recurring to the other location, a few remarks will point out another spot of great beauty, which is now, however, lost

for any purpose of this kind. In Rome, the finest effects are produced by the direction of some of the streets, and the judicious placing of objects; thus at the gate del Popolo, which is the entrance from Florence, there is a triangular place, and in the centre an obelisk; from this square three streets proceed diverging into the city; the consequence is, that from the other extremity of these streets, widely distant from each other, this obelisk and gate are seen to great advantage, and the objects appear multiplied. On the Monte Cavallo, the principal residence of the Popes, two superb streets cross each other at right angles, and in looking down each of them, there is some grand object to terminate the view, and from the other end of these streets they have for a point of sight, the fine horses which give the name to this hill. Keeping out of mind the grandeur of the associations on that spot, and the magnificence of the edifices; there is a spot in Boston which in natural advantage far exceeds it, and although greatly mutilated, and degraded by irregularities, it still presents a scite of singular and almost unequalled beauty. Let the observer place himself in the centre, where Belknap and Olive streets cross each other. Looking east, the avenue is perhaps irretrievably spoilt, but if the north wall of the State House yard was made straight, and the fence in the street beyond it taken away, the eye after passing over the centre of the town, would see the harbour and its islands. Looking north, down Belknap street, the eye passes over part of West Boston, Charles River; and the hills of Charlestown, appearing to great advantage, and rests on the rocky hills of Malden beyond. Looking west, the placid bay of Charles River, appears at the foot of Mount Vernon like a calm lake, fringed with the graceful outline of the hills of Brookline and Brighton. Looking south, the sight passes over the common, the southerly part of the town, the bay beyond, the country houses and orchards of Roxbury and Dorchester, and reposes on the fine masses of the Blue Hills. If a large area had been left here originally, this spot would have possessed matchless advantages for the erection of any monument of art.

The spot pointed out in the report, is perhaps on the whole, the best that can be selected. The time may perhaps come, when the comfort and happiness of the whole town will not be sacrificed to a few cowkeepers, and when

this beautiful enclosure will be converted, which might be done for a very trifling expense, into a Park worthy of the town. Nature has done every thing for it; a few plantations of trees, a few gravel walks, the clearing out the pond, and filling it with pure water from the aqueduct or the springs on Mount Vernon, will give us publick grounds and walks such as no other town, in the United States at least, can boast of. The eminence mentioned, would be an excellent scite for the column, the stone might be landed very near it, for it should be built of the fine Chelmsford granite. The extensive and ornamented area that would be always open, terminated to the west by the bay and hills beyond, give decisive advantage to the situation, while even its very base would always be visible from more than one third of a circle, whose diameter is twelve or fifteen miles.

If a column should be decided on, without any impracticable effort, we might erect the largest and finest in the world; and it is something to say, that in any particular object we possess the finest of its kind. In equestrian statues, there are perhaps a hundred to rival us, and we could hardly hope to reach the average of excellence in this way. An equestrian statue, certainly does not produce on common observers an effect in proportion to its cost.—These observations, hastily written, have been extended much beyond the original intention of the writer; but the subject is interesting, and the publick attention towards it seems at length to be strongly excited.

REPORT.

The committee of both Houses, who had under consideration the subject of erecting a Statue to the memory of General George Washington, ask leave to REPORT—

That they have bestowed all that attention to the object of their appointment, which their limited time and means would afford; and although it appears to your committee, that an offering of gratitude of the present age to futurity, in erecting a Statue or Architectural Monument to commemorate the great Washington, would have been more peculiarly the province of the national government, yet, for reasons which are not well understood, or are here unnecessary to repeat, no effectual measures have hitherto been taken by them, to effect this, so desirable an object.

In one or two of the states, it is believed, this subject has been attended to, and some emblem provided to perpetuate the fame of this great man: and in a recent instance the Legislature of one of the southern Atlantick states, by their resolution and approbation of a sum of money for the purpose, have borne honourable testimony to the recollection of his virtues.

The committee further report, That the plan of erecting a Monument to Washington, may be divided into two parts; either a Statue to be placed in some publick building, or an Architectural Monument to be erected in some publick place.

A Statue with suitable pedestal and accompaniments, might be estimated to cost from ten to fifteen thousand dollars, if it be attempted to execute it in a manner worthy the object.

The placing such a Statue is attended with some difficulty; the severity of the winters in our climate, would be likely to injure a Statue, if constantly exposed to the weather without a covering.

In Europe, the monumental statues erected to illustrious men, are deposited in churches or palaces, whose solid walls and durable construction make them endure for ages.

A marble statue designed for perpetuity, would be absurdly placed on a wooden floor, which might crumble under it in less than a century: this difficulty might be partially remedied, if such a statue should be placed in the centre of the State-House floor, by erecting under it a solid mass of stone work, on which it might stand independent of the floor.

Such a Statue, if simple in its details, might be rendered still more serviceable to the state, by taking plaster copies of the same, which might be done at a very trifling expense, and one of them given to each county, to be put up in the Court-House, or some other publick building of the county.

Your committee say nothing of an Equestrian Statue; those being attended with very great expense, can only be placed to advantage in some magnificent publick square, and in the present state of the arts in our country, would perhaps be impossible to have executed with sufficient perfection to have rendered it valuable.

Should, however, such a Statue be resolved upon, the centre of the common, or the centre of the ground in front of the State-House, may be considered the most eligible scites.

With respect to an Architectural Monument, the principal form are, a Triumphal Arch, a column or an obelisk, with allegorical figures in *basso relievo* about their bases.

A Triumphal Arch should have a long avenue to its approach, and perhaps the only spot where such an object could be advantageously placed, as things now are, would be in this capital, at the entrance of Washington-street.

An obelisk or a column, would be the kind of Monument which could now be erected with the greatest ease; different situations might be selected for this purpose, but one however will be designated in this Report, and that is the mound to the westward of the ancient elm tree in the common. The gentle and sufficient elevation of the ground, the capability of the surrounding enclosure being highly improved, the almost unexampled beauty of the western landscape, the wide area which must always remain open, and its being in sight of the State-House, are some of the reasons that may be adduced for erecting a triumphal column or obelisk in this situation.

But your Committee find, that on the 18th day of January, A. D. 1800, this Legislature passed a Resolution which has never been rescinded, in the following words—"Resolved, that a Statue or Monument of Marble be erected on the centre of the lower hall in the new State House, in memory of General George Washington, with inscriptions and devices adapted to impress a due sense of his sublime virtues, to extend and perpetuate their influence, and to express the publick gratitude for his eminent services."

Therefore, your Committee beg leave to report the following Resolutions, which are respectfully submitted.

MARK LANGDON HILL, *Chairman.*

The substance of these resolutions has been already given.

TRANSLATION.

HOR: O. III. 13,

BLANDUSIAN Fount! thy waters clear,
More bright than chrystal gem appear;
Libations of the mantling wine
Shall flow before thy sacred shrine,
From goblets crown'd with flowers.

To-morrow's sacrifice shall bring
The sportive fatling to thy spring,
Whose swelling front and wanton air,
Declare him ripe for love or war.
Alas! in vain, his scarlet blood,
Shall tinge the springing of thy flood.

The scorching dog-star's sultry heat,
Can never reach thy cool retreat—
The shades that circle round thy stream,
Reanimate the wearied team,
And oft the wandering flock.—

Sweet water! thou shalt soon belong
To fountains proud, renown'd in song,
When I have prais'd the wavering oak,
That overhangs the hollow rock,
From whence thy murmuring rills descend.

W . . . . R.

SIR,

Observing in the last number of your journal some account of the lamented THEODORIC TUDOR RANDOLPH, I place the following lines at your disposal. *Cambridge.*

To the Editor.

IN T. T. RANDOLPHI MEMORIAM.

Si fratrem fratri, sobolem plorare parenti,
Vel socium sociis undique flere licet,
Sint vobis lachrymae, vobis sit planctus, Alumni,
Ne cohibe luctum tristis et Alma Parens!

Quem nuper vidisti ingens tibi nomen honoris,
Ille jacet tumulo, doctaque lingua silet.
Quid juvat ingenium, doctrina, operumque labores?
Romanos, Gracios, quid coluisse modos?
Incumbens studiis docuisti tempora vitae,
Artibus ingenuis, hen! celerare fugam.
Mole suâ premitur culmi sic pondus aristis.
Quid tua nos virtus? Quid pietasve valet?
Heu! frustra miseris haec prosint compescere cursum;—
Optima tolluntur;—sic Ganymedis honos.
Si tibi Dî dederint humilem Theodorice mentem,
Defuerit Musae si nimis acer amor,
Si praeceps famae, famae si sacra cupido,
Esses dulce decus praesidiumque tuis.
Splendidior citius sese sed conficit ignis;
Flammea vis animi ac corpus inane terit.
Ah! puer infelix, potior, seu tunc cecidisses
Natali gremio, fata levante domo,
Seu dulcem posuisti animam nos inter Alumnos,
Musarum socios hoc Helicone novo.
Exequias tristes videt pene ultima Thule,
Redditur externis atque supremus honor.
Nescio quis juvenum, saeclis volventibus aevi,
Tecum qui studiis tempora grata dedit,
Nexuit insignes hederae laurique coronas
In celeris Cami vel viridante toro,
Olim quum viset disjunctos orbe Britannos,
Qua cineres tumulo sint tibi, sistet iter,
Ac multum lachrymans effundet talia luctûs
Fontibus et sylvis. En! jacet ille Tudor.
Cui vivo, virtus, pietas, moresque modesti,
Ingenium praestans, assiduusque labor,
Finxisset signum nomenque perennius aeere,
Quem nunc hospitii marmora sola notant,
Huic, querulus vates, indicam carmine laudes,
(Quis prohibet?) memorans terque graterque vale.

TO THE EDITOR.

Sir,

In your volume of the Review for January last, under the head of "*Institution for the Fine Arts*," I observed enumerated the names of several ingenious artists of this town. No one is more ready than the writer of this article, to award to the gentlemen named in your publication, the meed of ap-

plause which is so justly their due: yet I could not repress a feeling of sincere regret, that in this catalogue, the name of Mr. HENRY WILLIAMS had been omitted. I again recurred to the essay, and found what I presume to have been the cause of the omission, in the following words:

"The list given is a very hasty and no doubt imperfect one; but it is certainly sufficient to shew that it is not the want of artists, which should prevent our commencing an institution that would afford them the advantages of studying the best models; and the publick an opportunity of beholding, of cheering, and rewarding their labours."

I do not obtrude this note upon your attention with any other view, than to do justice to one whom I consider an ingenious, meritorious, useful and industrious citizen. For versatility of talent, and excellence in every department of the fine arts which he has yet undertaken, it is believed that Mr. WILLIAMS has no superiour in this town. The firmness of drawing, elegance of colouring, and power of resemblance, which characterize his portrait and miniature paintings; and the elegant style in which his highly meritorious Anatomical preparations are constructed, (requiring the most accurate knowledge of one of the most important of the sciences)—afford ample evidence of his ingenuity and skill.

When it is considered that Mr. WILLIAMS is a native citizen of the town; that he is indefatigable in his attention to the various branches of his business; and that a family are dependent on the proceeds of his industry, it is thought that an enlightened publick will continue to patronize one, whose claims and whose talents are so well established.

February, 1816. JUSTICE.

[We insert the preceding letter to repair any injustice we may have committed. The list of artists given in our last number was confessedly imperfect, and the result of very hasty inquiries. We have no doubt that there are other meritorious individuals whose names have been omitted. We hope the time is not distant, when publick patronage will be turned towards our own artists, and that a liberal institution, by giving an opportunity to display their productions in some place where publick attention will be concentrated; will render it more easy to ascertain their number and their merits.]

Extract from JEREMY TAYLOR *on the Duties of Married Life. Vol.* 1. *p.* 346, *Boston Edition.*

IT was rarely observed by PHILO, that, when *Adam* made that fond excuse for his folly in eating the forbidden fruit, he said, "The woman thou gavest me to be with me, she gave me." He says not, "The woman which thou gavest *to me*:" no such thing; she is none of his goods, none of his possessions, not to be reckoned amongst his servants; God did not give her to him so; but, "The woman thou gavest *to be with me*;" that is, to be my partner, the companion of my joys and sorrows; thou gavest her for use, not for dominion. The dominion of a man over his wife is no other, than as the soul rules the body; for which it takes a mighty care, and uses it with a delicate tenderness, and cares for it in all contingencies, and watches to keep it from all evils, and studies to make for it fair provisions, and very often is led by its inclinations and desires, and does never contradict its appetites but when they are evil, and then also not without some trouble and sorrow; and its government comes only to this, it furnishes the body with light and understanding, and the body furnishes the soul with hands and feet. The soul governs, because the body cannot else be happy, but the *government* is no other than *provision;* as a nurse governs a child, when she causes him to eat, and to be warm, and dry, and quiet: and yet even the very government itself is divided; for man and wife in the family, are as the sun and moon in the firmament of heaven; he rules by day, and she by night; that is, in the lesser and more proper circles of her affairs, in the conduct of domestick provisions and necessary offices, and shines only by his light, and rules by his authority: and as the moon in opposition to the sun shines brightest; that is, then, when she is in her own circles and separate regions; so is the authority of the wife then most conspicuous, when she is separate and in her proper sphere; in the nursery and offices of domestick employment: but when she is in conjunction with the sun her brother; that is, in that place and employment in which his care and proper offices are employed, her light is not seen, her authority hath no proper business. But else there is no difference: for they were barbarous people, among whom wives were instead of servants; and it is a

sign of impotency and weakness, to force the camels to kneel for their load, because thou hast not spirit and strength enough to climb: to make the affections and evenness of a wife bend by the flexures of a servant, is a sign the man is not wise enough to govern, when another stands by. So many differences as can be in the appellatives of *dominus* and *domina*, governour and governess, lord and lady, master and mistress, the same difference there is in the authority of man and woman, and no more. *Si tu Caius, ego Caia*, was publickly proclaimed upon the threshold of the young man's house, when the bride entered into his hands and power; and the title of *domina*, in the sense of the civil law, was among the *Romans* given to wives.

Hi *dominam* Ditis thalamo diducere adorti,*

said *Virgil:* where, though *Servius* says it was spoken after the manner of the *Greeks*, who called the wife δεσποιναν, lady or mistress, yet it was so among both the nations.

Ac domus dominam voca,—*says* Catullus;
Haerebit dominae vir comes ipse suae,—*so* Martial:†

And therefore, although there is just measure of subjection and obedience due from the wife to the husband, (as I shall hereafter explain,) yet nothing of this is expressed in the man's character, or in his duty; he is not commanded to rule, nor instructed how, nor bidden to exact obedience, or to defend his privilege; all his duty is signified by *love*, by *nourishing and cherishing*,‡ by being joined with her in all the unions of charity, by *not being bitter to her*,‖ by *dwelling with her according to knowledge, giving honour to her*:§ so that it seems to be with husbands, as it is with bishops and priests, to whom much honour is due, but yet so that if they stand upon it, and challenge it, they become less honourable. And as amongst men and women humility is the way to be preferred; so it is in husbands, they shall prevail by cession, by sweetness and counsel, and charity and compliance.

* Aeneid. Lib. vi.
Who from his lofty dome aspir'd to lead
The beauteous partner of his royal bed.

† Epithal. Juliae. ‡ Ephes. v 25. ‖ Col. iii. 19. § 1 Peter iii. 7.

THE NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW.

Travels in England.

Continued from p. 276.

We had made so many extracts from this work, that they exceeded our limits, and as they were already in type and we knew nothing better we could present to the publick, we have, contrary to a rule determined upon, continued the article to the present number. The work is, we presume, by this time republished in New-York, and will, we hope, be eagerly purchased, and generally read. It is not like the common trash of travels, but worthy of a permanent station in every library. The author has given a favourable picture of England, yet it is such an one, as every traveller, whose mind is not confounded by the sight of new objects, or warped by prejudice, would give. He undoubtedly might have found many dark shades to have put in his picture, if he had wanted, like most English travellers, in this country at least, to seek for deformities which might be exaggerated into caricature. But the object of a fair minded traveller should not be, to seek for defects which no country is without, but to generalize; and as a general picture, we assert from some share of personal experience, that this performance is remarkably correct. On reflection, we can hardly name a traveller, who has brought so much good sense, good taste, and that presence of mind, if we may use the phrase, to receive the first impressions of a foreign country distinctly; and that clearness of style to narrate them without confusion. Above all, we admire what is still more uncommon, its coolness, absence of prejudice, and complete independence of party feelings in judging of the state of a country, where party spirit is so strong, that it is almost impossible even for a foreigner, to avoid blending his feelings with one side or the other, adopting their opinions, and colouring every object accordingly.

We agree with him in most points, where he mentions the United States incidentally; but in some we differ from him; and in those it is easy to remark, the influence of party feelings, and the forming his judgment after certain received though exaggerated theories. We hardly know a book which we should read with such avidity, as a book of travels in this country, written by some foreigner, as sagacious, candid, and exempt from passion, as the author of the work before us.

"Mr. Lancaster, like other heroes, owes something to chance,—to the evident struggle for power between the established church and the different sects of non-conformists, who have a common interest of jealousy. The established church enjoys all the worldly advantages; wealth, consideration, and supremacy, its dignitaries throw generally their weight on the ministerial side—no wonder they should be hated by their opponents! That spirit of inquiry, boldness and originality of thinking, for which this country is distinguished, the liberty of the press, and a certain degree of seriousness which has been denominated gloom and melancholy, have long made it the hot-bed of religious sects, and of political factions. New apostles of the gospel rise up from time to time, who explain it in different ways, and kindle at the fire of their own enthusiasm the imagination of their followers. The nature of the particular dogma is of little importance—any thing very enthusiastic succeeds; and those who address themselves to the terrours of superstition, more certainly, than those, who inculcate a rational confidence, grounded on the attributes of the Supreme Being. The sect of the Methodists who preach hell and damnation, and place faith before works, has made astonishing progress; while that of the Unitarians who see in Christ little more than a wise man, extends very little. Enthusiasm, however, like other passions, subsides in time, and none of these sects have a very long duration. The Presbyterians, the Independents, the Quakers, do not increase, and perhaps diminish. Very probably these sects, even the most extravagant, are not an evil—new converts being generally remarkable for the purity and simplicity of their morals. Sectaries indeed, do not in general cultivate the fine arts, nor the belles lettres;—you meet with little elegance or polish among them;—they are not men of taste; but they are generally honest and re-

spectable, notwithstanding a slight tincture of pride and hypocrisy, mixed with christian lowliness. The pastor among them, holding his tenure upon the good pleasure of his congregation, must exert himself and shew some zeal; while the clergy of the established church being independent, have come, at least so I am told, to fulfil their functions merely as a professional duty, strictly perhaps, but coldly. Auricular confession, and all the practices of the Roman Catholick church, keep an habitual intercourse between the clergy and the people. There is comparatively none in the English church, and the episcopal clergy are little else than an aristocratical body in the state. Returning from Scotland, where the clergy are particularly grave and decorous, we are the more struck with the smart appearance of the English clergy. I observed a few days ago at the house of one of these reverend persons, a pair of sparring gloves; and the sight put me in mind of Dr. Moore's anecdote about the young man who thought he had a vocation for the church, 'because he liked field sports so much.' You meet in the best society a number of young clergymen, brought up in the expectancy of some good living, of which their families or friends have the presentation. Those young men have received an education, which sets any talents they may have off to the best advantage;—they are idle enough to be *amiable*, and welcome every where like our abbés formerly. A well brushed suit of black forms the essential of their establishment; nobody inquires where they lodge, nor at what ordinary they eat their meal. We have in the upper part of the house where we lodge, one of these expectants of the good things of the church. From his garret he went the other day to Carleton house, to be presented—he dines out every day—is of all the parties—and comes home at two o'clock in the morning.' p. 132. vol. ii.

"Mr. Davy's lectures at the Royal Institution are still more crowded than they were the last year, and the lecturer himself more than ever sought after by the great and the fair. It would be a matter of great regret, if the allurements of science, should at last prove inferior to those of fashion, and if future fame should be sacrificed to ephemeral successes. The elocution of this celebrated chemist is very different from the usual tone of men of science in England; his lectures are frequently figurative and poetical; and he

is occasionally carried away by the natural tendency of his subject, and of his genius, into the depths of moral philosophy and religion. The peculiarities of great and original writers or speakers have often introduced a vicious affectation in the language of their numerous followers;—and English simplicity runs some such risk at the amphitheatre of the Royal Institution. The voice and manners of Mr. Davy are rather gentle than impressive and strong; he knows what nature has given him, and what it has withheld, and husbands his means accordingly. You may always foresee by a certain turning or pitching of the organ of speech to a graver key, thrusting his chin into his neck, and even pulling out his cravat, when Mr. Davy is going to be eloquent,—for he rarely yields to the inspiration till he is duly prepared. It is impossible to study nature and penetrate into the secret of its proceedings, without discovering at every step such evidence of a plan, such fitness of things to a general purpose, and a purpose so benevolent, that conviction flashes at once on the mind of an omnipotent intelligence, and further hopes are inseparable from that conviction. If ordinary spectators experience an involuntary impulse of enthusiasm, what must be the feelings of him, who, penetrating the first into regions hitherto unknown, has raised the corner of the thick veil, and untied one of the last knots of the great tissue of wonders? I have heard the moral digressions of the illustrious naturalist, and his solemn appeals to the supreme wisdom severely criticised; but the greatest part of his audience hears them with delight and applause, and I think Mr. Davy would disarm criticism, if he abandoned himself more naturally to his spontaneous feelings, which are legitimately called forth by the occasion. I must say however, that I think the satisfaction of Mr. Davy's audience is sometimes expressed with more zeal than delicacy. Where clapping is allowed, hissing may follow.

"*May 7.* Although artists enjoy here very little personal consideration, and pride is a principal feature of English manners, yet we find a copartnership actually existing between certain persons of fashion and a company of public singers. The Dutchess of D. lady C. lady K. and lady S. B. allowed a concert for money to be performed in each of their houses successively. In return for the trouble, refreshments, wear and tear of the house, lights, &c. &c.

the ladies distribute a certain number of tickets on their respective nights, all given away I should hope :—but I would not answer for that—for shabbiness and gentility are often found together. The last night was lady S. B's night; constables and door keepers received the tickets at the door, just like any other public concert. The crowd was prodigious, (*Bianchi, Bertinotti, Tramezani,* &c.)—but music was not what they came for, and the true enjoyment does not in fact begin till the concert is over. The going away is the thing; that is, seeing other people go away, not going away one's self. Therefore, although there is a general heaving and rolling of the well-dressed mob towards the door, the tide returns many a time 'loth to leave such scenes.' Meanwhile, as carriages drive successively to the door, the names are vociferated, but vociferated in vain;—none will go first:—they drive away empty to take their turn again: the footmen swear and scold, and speak rudely to the mob of masters; at last some of them depart but it is hours before the house is empty. The prime situation all that time is at the top of the stairs, whence you have a full view of all the heads—four fifths are women. Men have not the same keen relish for this sort of pleasure. The Bishop of B. and W. was distinguished among them, and seemed to enjoy it all, calling aloud, "*well, well, only build churches.*"* *p.* 150. *vol.* ii.

"*June.* Albury. We have been here for some days, in a very pretty country, already described last year, and where the kind attention of other friends, and the virtue of strawberries are likely to complete my recovery. Before a stranger ventures to pass final sentence on the anti-social manners of the English, he should see them at home in the country. London is not their home; it is an encampment for business and pleasure, where every body thinks of himself. You might as well look for humanity in a field of battle, as for urbanity and attentions in a busy crowd.

"This is sheep-shearing time, which in England is a sort of festivity like the *moisson* in the north of France, and the *vendange* in the south, and the principal harvest in all countries. The sack of wool on which the Chancellor sits in Parliament is well known to be emblematick of the impor-

* There is some subscription going on for building a church in this part of the town.

tance of this production. The mirth and festivity of the people here is quite calm, and a *fete* after their manner, might in Languedoc be mistaken for a funeral. If the country people dance, it is without elasticity, vivacity, or ardour; if they sing it is far worse; nothing ever was less musical than the indigenous English musick, with its jerks and starts, jolting along its rugged way, without either dignity, liveliness or tenderness:—so different from the Scotch musick, which possesses at least one of these modes of expression, and from the Italian musick which unites them all. Italian musick is now naturalized in England, but it will not supersede the old tavern musick so entirely, as it did in France, the old flat stye; and so far as it is connected with national enthusiasm, it is perhaps better it should be so. The native musick of the southern extremity of France, formed an exception to the dulness of the national musical taste, as that of North compared to South Britain." p. 221. vol. ii.

"The pursuit of agriculture does not occupy so exclusively the minds of the people in the country, as not to admit of a very keen relish for town news. The Prince Regent has given a very magnificent fete, which was the object of general conversation for a fortnight. It was computed that 1600 persons invited, supposed at least 400 carriages; and that allowing two minutes for each, more than 13 hours would be required for the whole number to be delivered at the door; and that beginning at eleven o'clock at night, it takes till twelve the next day! His Majesty having heard of the intended fete, is said to have asked, whether he might not be permitted to go as a private gentleman. This raillery is in the same spirit with another *bon mot* of this august patient, "*Here you see me*," he said to a person who approached him, in a moment of personal restraint, indispensable in his situation, "*checkmated*." p. 224, vol. ii.

"The maid servant of our lodgings (a fisherman's cottage in the Isle of Wight) a simple, good natured, honest creature, who was born on this spot and was never out of sight of the landslip, has a child; but it turned out on inquiry, that she never had a husband; and I am informed, that the landlady, a very pretty young woman just married, has remarked on the occasion, that it was no uncommon case.—She blamed the practice as *unsafe*, observing with great appearance of simplicity, that for her part she thought it was

better to secure a husband first. We had much the same information in Cumberland, and in other parts of the country; and I really think the facility of American manners, about which travellers have made ill-natured remarks, has a precedent here to go by." p. 244. vol. ii.

"America and the Americans take up very little of the attention of Europe; and even here, where there are so many points of contact with the people of the United States, they would be surprised to find their feelings of partiality or of hatred so faintly reciprocated. An official letter of the officer who had the late unfortunate *rencontre* with the Little Belt, as published in the newspapers, was however mentioned at a dinner where I happened to be lately; and the matter and style of that letter were given as an instance of the want of temper and manners, and the bad tone altogether, so conspicuous in most productions of that sort in America. A person who had been formerly in America observed, on the occasion, that the writer of this letter had many years before, published a still more objectionable account of an action between a French and an American Frigate. It was remarkable at the same time, that the narrator of the commonest incident in a newspaper, (nearly the only specimen of American literature known in Europe,) seemed to think it a fit opportunity to establish his claim to pathetick eloquence, or liveliness of wit, which was always so utterly *manqué*, and in such inveterate bad taste, as to excite the astonishment of European readers; and must necessarily lead them to suppose the state of manners in the United States, and general information, very inferiour to what it certainly is. Ample justice was done to the talent for abuse of the political writers of that country, the force, if not the originality of their invectives, shewing them to have profited by the long residence of Mr. Cobbett among them.

"A person who has lived many years in America, mentioned as an exception to this general prevalence of bad taste, the practice of the American bar, which he maintained was vastly more becoming the dignity of the law, and better fitted to the end of justice than the pert, flippant, and insolent mode of examining witnesses, and handling the reputation and character of adverse parties, which prevails in England to a disgusting degree, and may well afford to an American the opportunity of retorting the accusation of

bad taste. He suggested also that the legislature of the United States was not so deficient in talents, liberality, and information, as the very imperfect report of their speeches and proceedings, given in the newspapers, might induce European readers to suppose. The bad taste of their jokes, when they attempt any, was to be sure very striking; their invective was coarse, and their elevation commonly bombastick and frothy. But when they relinquished imagination, and kept to plain sense and reason, it was maintained that some of the members of Congress would do honour to a British Parliament. One indeed, who is said to have taken Chatham for his model, was noticed for the peculiar vigour and originality of his eloquence; yet it was thought to be generally too high, or too low, either turgid or trivial, and with superiour advantages of fortune and education, often vulgar both in the language and ideas.

The style of an illustrious personage, who ranks among the few literati of the United States, and has been their first chief Magistrate, was mentioned, as another instance of vicious taste, involved, over fine, affectedly philosophical, ingenious, rather than sound, and corrupted by the mixture of foreign idioms. An instance of perfect purity of taste, of justness of conception and expression, was at last unanimously acknowledged, in a man, who stands equally pre-eminent in the old and in the new world, as a hero, and a patriot, and a sage. It belongs to Washington alone to be thus held a model of all that is great and good. Another of the heroes of American independence,* and a man of more genius, as much purity, but less unerring sense than Washington; was supposed to have lent his pen to him. He might in some instances, and certainly did in the most memorable and the last; but Washington's style was too uniformly good, and on all occasions, public or private, not to have been essentially his own.

"From American taste and manners, the conversation naturally turned to American politics; and a gentleman distinguished by his legal and legislative eloquence, a statesman who has been denominated the British Cicero, disapproved the haughty tone of the British government in regard to that country. The Americans, he said, shew a provoking partiality for our enemy, and an offensive dis

* Hamilton.

like of ourselves, without any adequate cause,—let it be so; the surest way to remove these prejudices would be, to act as if we were not sensible that they did exist. We can be magnanimous with impunity, now that we are the strongest, and might hope to effect a cure before the time comes, when we shall be compelled to be proud in our own defence. Lord Erskine, ex-chancellor, for I have already sufficiently designated him, is about sixty years of age, tall, of a noble, frank and expressive countenance,—speaking well, freely and without pretensions, and with the utmost good humour. Faithful to the doctrines of his party, he expressed himself on the consequences of the war with great despondency. The country is brought to the brink of ruin—in fact it *is* ruined,—land is the only safe property,—stick to acres, &c. &c. Farming was talked of; and in proof of the universality of the taste for agriculture as a pursuit here, I shall state that Lord Erskine, who was early in life, in the army, and I believe in the navy also, followed afterwards the law as a profession, became chancellor, and was all his life a man of the world, as well as a man of business—seemed as much *au fait* on the subject, as if he had spent his whole life on the family estate in Scotland. p. 268. vol. ii.

"*Sept.* 5. Wishing to see, or rather thinking it incumbent on me to see, something of the prisons of this capital, I called to-day at the most considerable of them, Newgate. A turnkey took me up a back stair-case to the leads, from which, like Asmodeus in the *Diable Boiteux*, I had a view into the interiour, and could see what was doing in the different divisions of this melancholy abode. We first perched upon the debtor's ward,—they sat and walked about in two courts, paved with flag stones and very clean; the women separated from the men. Some of the women, (they were few) held up their hands to me for alms. I observed written on the walls in very large letters, *Lord Moira for ever.** Then we went to the felons under sentence of death. They were playing fives against the wall of a narrow court; their irons fastened on one leg only, from the knee to the ankle, over a sort of cushion, and so arranged as to make no noise, and to be no impediment at all

* Lord Moira had made some motion in Parliament in favour of insolvent debtors.

to their motion: in fact a mere matter of form—and so is also in a great degree the sentence of death itself. Not one of these people appeared to believe it serious. One of them, whose companions had been executed for forgery,* had been reprieved the day before, having turned evidence, and they were all playing with great briskness and glee. In one of the courts, the one I think for felons under sentence of transportation, I was shewn the man who fired a pistol at the king twelve or fifteen years ago at the theatre. He stood picking his teeth in a corner very composedly,—well dressed and looking young (he must have been quite young at the time.) I asked whether the man was insane. *Not at all*, said the turnkey, *no more than you, only very cunning.* But what is there so cunning in getting himself shut up here for life? They have made him foreman of the ward, he has a good salary, a guinea a week I think he said, *happy as a king—eats the best of every thing—what can he want more!* The transportation ladies crowded in a small court, were much more disorderly than the men. They threatened and wrangled among themselves, singing, vociferating, and as much as the narrow space allowed, moving about in all sorts of dresses,—one of them in men's clothes. They are not in irons like the men. In a more spacious court, separated from these women by a high wall, were state prisoners, as my guide called them, playing fives (the favourite pastime of Newgate it seems.) One of them, well dressed, and wearing powder, about forty years of age, was pointed out to me as Haslet of the bank. He was playing merrily with another *gentleman*, as my guide, a most vulgar wretch, called them. This other gentleman was a printer, who had been there two years for *striking for wages*, and has one or two years more to stay. Three or four years confinement in Newgate, for a confederacy of journeymen to have their wages raised, seems to me most excessive, especially as their employers may confederate as much as they please for the reduction of wages. The associations of workmen, and raising a fund among themselves under certain officers, have been thought a contrivance of revolutionary tendency; and there may have been something of that sort in the present case. I inquired for Mr. Cobbet, expecting to see him among the gentlemen.—

* There is no pardon for forgery.

Oh no, said my turnkey, *he is too great for that.* Where is he then?—*Why he's in the governour's house,—I'll show you,—plenty of money, and that is every thing you know.* Then walking farther on the leads, he shewed me a grated door, through which I could see a carpetted room —Mr. Cobbet's room. He has the key of the grated door, and therefore free access to this leaden roof, which is extensive, high and airy, with a most beautiful view of St. Paul's and over a great part of the city. His family is with him, and he continues to pour out his torrent of abuse as freely as ever, on every thing and every body in turn. Mr. Cobbet seems to me to furnish, without intending it, the same sort of evidence in favour of the liberty of the press in his own country, as a philosopher of antiquity gave of the existence of motion.

"The strange medley of licentiousness and legal restraint, of freedom and confinement, of punishment for what is done and liberty to do the same again, is really very curious. An heterogeneous compound it seems at first; complex, artificial, inconsistent and laboriously insufficient; but, I think, best upon the whole. The constitution has provided certain civil ingredients; they are thrown together and left to ferment, and struggle and combine, abandoned to their chemical affinities. The chemist to be sure, is accused of not giving always fair play to the experiment, and meddling with the process, as his views incline to particular results. But upon the whole, how much nearer it comes to the immutability of general laws, than the *simple* arbitrary processes of other countries?" p. 272. vol. ii.

"*Sept.* 25, 1811.—We are waiting only for a change of wind to go on board the ship, which is to carry us away, for ever perhaps, from a country, where we have been received with kindness, and where we leave a few friends. There is a seriousness in the thought,—and the near prospect of a long voyage and all its hazards, is not likely to dissipate the gloom. If I was asked at this moment, for a summary opinion of what I have seen in England, I might probably say, that its political institutions present a detail of corrupt practices,—of profusion,—and of personal ambition, under the mask of public spirit very carelessly put on, more disgusting than I should have expected: the workings of the selfish passions are exhibited in all their nakedness and deformity. On the other hand, I should admit very readily,

that I have found the great mass of the people richer, happier and more respectable, than any other with which I am acquainted. I have seen prevailing among all ranks of people, that emulation of industry and independence, which characterize a state of civilization properly directed. The manners, and the whole deportment of superiors to inferiors, are marked with that just regard and circumspection, which announce the presence of laws equal for all. By such signs, I know this to be the best government that ever existed. I sincerely admire it in its results, but I cannot particularly like the means. What I dislike here, I might be told belongs to human nature in general; to the world rather than to England particularly. It may be so, and I shall not undertake the panegyric of either the one or the other.

"The government of England is eminently practical. The one under which I have lived for many years might be defined, on the contrary, a government of abstract principles. Certain ideas have taken possession of men's minds, and they cling to them, as to the religion in which they were born, without examination. The measures of the government have the prejudices of the multitude for their basis—always the same under any change of circumstances,—and to be obeyed in defiance of the better judgment of that very government. Were the people left to themselves, they might come to a better judgment of things; but they are encompassed by newspapers, conducted by the mercenary pens of men, often foreigners, who find it more convenient to flatter prejudices and inflame passions, than to rectify and enlighten; they follow the stream of public opinion—yet they swell the tide and give it its headlong violence,*

* The principal distinction in the United States, is that of poor and rich. The poor being more numerous, are, by virtue of the universality of suffrage, the sovereign, whom government must obey, or be dismissed. The rich are naturally an object of jealousy to the poor, particularly when neither birth, nor scarcely any other superiority, softens the inequality, and renders it respectable. Therefore the measures of the government must be unfavourable to the rich; that, is, to commerce, the only road to wealth in the United States. It is to be observed, that almost every individual who becomes wealthy enters *ipso facto* the ranks of opposition, and *vice versa* those of fallen fortunes. Talents are to be found in opposition to government in America as in England, because it is the brilliant side; but wealth in England is arrayed on the side of government, with whom it feels safe, while in America it feels the ill will of a government dependent on the poor, and seeks the protection of the talents in the opposition. A

and the people believe themselves free under an oligarchy of newspaper writers.

"The different governments of the continent of Europe, old and infirm, are half factious, half despotic; one alone purely despotick, overpowers the others by its unity and its energy. This state of things, which makes the people a mere instrument, and has the prince for its sole object; makes of course secret enemies of all those who do not share in his greatness, and are out of the sphere of his splendour. England, after all, is the only country in the world, where chance, perhaps, as much as human wisdom, compounding with the vices and virtues of our species, has effected a treaty between them, assigning to each their proper and respective shares, and framing its political constitution on the constitution of human nature, has reared an edifice of mixed and irregular architecture, equally distant from the Grecian and the Gothick,—with little beauty and outward graces,—but solid, convenient, and easy to repair.

"As to the nation itself, its distinctive and national character, it would be difficult to give any but a comparative opinion. No national character is, I fear, very excellent in itself, and the least bad must be deemed good. Amongst the nations of Europe, the two most conspicuous in civilization, in arts and in arms, the nearest probably in their taste and manners, yet so distant—capable of understanding one another so well—yet so different in their respective tempers and turn of mind, present themselves naturally as fit objects of comparison. I know them well, I think; and feel an equal interest for both. I once called one of the two countries my own, and spent in it my early youth. I

little more poverty in the multitude, and property will fall an easy prey by such means as income-tax, assessed arbitrarily by commissioners in support of any popular measures,—by the establishment of a national paper money, by a maximum perhaps. The insecurity of property will then operate, as it has done elsewhere, in Turkey, in Persia for instance, and in a less degree, in those parts of Europe, where the government could raise arbitrary taxes on industry, and where the administration of justice was dependent. The insecurity of property is invariably followed by relaxation of industry and improvements, ignorance and rudeness; and finally, the establishment of a simple arbitrary government. It is no new observation, that every revolution contains the seeds of another, most opposite in its nature, and scatters them behind it. We have to see, what is to spring up in America from a purely popular revolution.

have visited the other in my maturer age, and the best friends I have on earth were born there.

"The pretensions of the two parties are certainly comprehensive. The English, for instance, lay claim to a certain superiority of moral rectitude, of sincerity, of generosity, of humanity, of judgment, of firmness and courage; they consider themselves the grown men of Europe, and their neighbours as sprightly children, and that is the character they give them when in their best humour,—for otherwise they might be disposed to take Voltaire at his word, who said they were *moitié singes et moitié tigres.*

"The French, on the other hand, admit of no comparison, as to nicety of taste, versatility of genius, and perfection in all the arts of civilization. In high honour, in generosity, in courage, they yield to none.

"The lower people in England hold other nations in thorough contempt. The same rank in France, in the interiour of the country at least, scarcely know there are other nations;—their geography is that of the Chinese.

"Of all the various methods claimed by the proud Islanders, I believe none is less disputed than that of generosity. It is not only a received thing that an Englishman has always plenty of money and gives it away freely, but no sacrifice of a higher kind is supposed to be above his magnanimity. I have to remark, on this subject, that those who give a little after promising much, appear to have given nothing, while those who without promising any thing, give a little, have credit on the contrary for giving a great deal. This accounts in part, for the two opposite reputations, the one for unmeaning politeness and mere shew of sentiment, the other for simple and blunt generosity. The fact is, as to giving substantially, that it is much easier for the English to do so than the French, and accordingly much more is given in money by the former than by the latter; but I doubt extremely, whether the English are more disposed than their neighbours, to bestow their time and personal attention upon their friends in sickness or misfortune, and upon the distressed in general. There is in England a sort of fastidious delicacy, coldness, or pride, which stands a good deal in the way of active benevolence. The ties of blood are also, I think, weaker than in France. People seem to calculate with more strictness how far the claim of kindred extends, and even the highest degrees of consanguinity, that of par-

ents and children, seems to command rather less deference and respect. A cousin may certainly not be more to you than another man, yet it is an amiable errour and a useful one, to think yourself obliged to shew some kindness, and feel some particular sympathy for the man, whom nature has placed nearly in the same rank of life with yourself, and whom you are likely to meet oftenest in your journey through life.

"The English are better reasoners than the French, and therefore more disposed to be just, the first of moral qualities; and yet the propensity to luxury and ostentation is so strong, as well as so general here, as to expose the same sense of justice to hard trials. I never knew a prodigal who was just, nor indeed truly generous—he never indeed has it in his power.

I do not conceive it possible, for some of the most horrible scenes of the French revolution to be acted here, in any event. The people in France are capable of greater atrocities than those of England, but I should think the latter sterner,—less prone to cruelty, but less susceptible of pity.

"There are, perhaps, more distinguished men of science at Paris than in London, and I think it is admitted by the English themselves. But there are certainly better scientifick materials here, and in the long run, accuracy and depth should prevail over quickness of parts. However the account may stand between the two nations, as to the higher sciences, I am convinced that cultivation of mind is more general in England than in France: it is indeed the bright side of English society. That conceited ignorance, forward loquacity, heedless and loud argumentation, which fills the common intercourse of men in France, is comparatively unknown here; and with so much better reasoning faculties, I do not think there are half so many logical attempts. A person of sense once remarked, that he never heard the concluding formula *donc* introduced into a Parisian conversation, without expecting something excessively absurd to follow immediately.

"There is undoubtedly in the English *abord* a coldness and reserve, which discourage and repel at first sight; in the French, on the contrary, a warmth and openness which invite confidence, and put you at ease instantly. The historian Gibbon said once, in speaking of French society, 'I know that, generally, there is no depending much on their

'professions, yet as far as I was concerned, I really believe 'they were sincere.' This exception the historian makes in his own favour, may well excite a smile; yet his errour was in the general opinion he had formed, not in the individual one. The kindness shewn to strangers, and expressions of interest lavished upon them, are really felt at the moment. These feelings might not last long, nor bear the test of any great sacrifice of interest or convenience. Those who express them, are inconsiderate and frivolous, but not insincere. I do not know whether I might not choose to live with the English, but I should undoubtedly find more pleasure in visiting the French. The reserve and coldness of the former wear off in time: the warmth of the latter cools, and the two manners meet at last *a la tiedeur*, which is the common and usual degree of interest, and all you can really hope to inspire in general and mixt society. The advantage of superiour and more general cultivation, of a greater range of ideas, and purer taste, must, however, remain on the side of the English. Taste! I think I hear the French exclaim—what a contradiction, after what yourself have said of the grossness and rudeness of the English stage; the indecent abuse of their newspapers, their libels, and so many offensive habits and customs! Perfectly consistent characters, I might answer, are only to be met with in novels. Nature does not produce any; and such a picture might be drawn of departures from good taste in French manners, and in French literature, as might show the propriety of toleration to similar ones in foreign countries.

"I have introduced occasionally into this journal, desultory remarks on several branches of English literature, as my attention was called to them by the occasion. A deeper examination of the subject, would not have suited the plan of this work. I can only say for myself, that I prefer the English literature to the French, upon most of those subjects with which I am acquainted. I am aware of the danger to which I expose myself by this rash declaration; and shall not deprecate the national resentment of my French readers, by common-place confessions of my unfitness to judge, Many, undoubtedly, have a more general knowledge than I have, of the literature not only of their own country, but of both countries. Few, however, of my countrymen choose to make any foreign language so far their own, as to be fair judges; and on this last qualification mostly, I venture to

rest my right to form an opinion of my own, and to avow it. My French readers being now informed, that the English have *du goût*, will hear with less surprize than they would otherwise have felt, that they have *de la gaiété*. They do not certainly possess the gaiété of manners of their neighbours ;—they have not the happy faculty of being amused without amusement. I think, also, that English spirits would not have survived the trials to which the French have been exposed ; the latter have this buoyancy in their blood, the former in their mind only ; but mirth is by no means so foreign to English manners as is supposed in France. Indeed I do not know whether a laugh, a true, joyous laugh, is not as common in the one as in the other country ; and although there is infinitely less animation, I doubt whether there is less cheerfulness.

"Upon the whole, I believe the national differences to have less reality than appearance. The same virtues and the same vices—the same propensities and views, under very different forms, are found in both countries, more nearly alike than is generally supposed."

Plan of an Improved System of the Money Concerns of the Union. By Erick Bollman, M. D. Philadelphia. William Fry, 1816.

The subject of this pamphlet awakens our recollection of one of the great founders, of our national credit and prosperity. We recur to Hamilton's works for the broad and deep principles which support the general welfare, and for those luminous views where he shows us the sources of national wealth, and points out to us the path to honour and power. Fortunately for the United States, an honourable ambition, and an ardent patriotism, led him to devote his splendid and powerful faculties to his country, to say nothing of his services in the revolution and the establishment of our government, in which last, he probably did more than any other man : what would have been the state of our finances, had not the creating mind of Hamilton brought order out of the chaos in which he found them ? That it would have been sufficiently deplorable, may be inferred

from the crude idea, which all his political opponents, and some of his political friends, threw out at that period. The party which now governs the United States, originated in an opposition to some of the salutary measures of which Hamilton was the projector, and among the most active supporters. There were at the adoption of the constitution some signs of the two parties, into which we have since been divided, but these began to be organised, when the founding of the national debt was discussed. They assumed a more definite form when a proposition was made by Hamilton, for a national bank. Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Madison, and their adherents, arrayed themselves against the measure. They drew their arguments from two sources; first, they said banks are useless institutions; secondly, the constitution of the United States, does not authorise Congress to grant a charter of incorporation, either for banking or any other purpose. The first objection, has been sufficiently obviated by the successful operation of the Bank of the United States, during twenty years. What arguments have removed the second objection, we know not, but that it is removed, appears from the disposition, which those who urged it now manifest, to establish another bank. So far we are well pleased, and prefer that they should come over to the side of truth and experience, rather than persist in errour for the sake of consistency. But let them come a little further, and while they by degrees, adopt Hamilton's principles and suffer themselves to be guided by the light of his luminous mind, let them no longer ungenerously refuse to acknowledge his merits and services: they ought no longer to withhold such poor amends for the injustice and persecution, which he experienced from them during his life. He had, while he lived, the warmest devotion and attachment of those who knew him rightly, and is remembered by them, with a regret that cannot be expressed; but this is too little, he is entitled to the gratitude and admiration of the universal American people. This would be a proper return for his services; an adequate reward is out of the question. The man who shapes and frames together, the rude materials of society, forms them into a system, and subjects them to the action of the springs and principles which evolve prosperity and happiness; may be thanked, he cannot be rewarded.

The pamphlet which gives occasion for this article, is no other, than a new project for a national bank. The author had before published paragraphs on Banks, which appeared a short time previous to the dissolution of the Banks of the United States, and had a regard to that event. He has also contributed two very respectable articles to the American Review—one upon the currency of Great Britain—the other on the better regulation of the currency of the United States. In each of these productions, many important ideas are repeated from the modern treatises on political economy, and the author has, besides the merit of calling the publick attention to a subject, which, though of the highest importance, is very much neglected, and consequently very ill understood. He seems to have studied his subject very diligently; there are however many marks of his attachment to theories of his own invention, and the reader does not follow him long, without suspecting him not to be a practical man. Instead of following Mr. Bollman through his work, we propose to take a partial view of his general subject, namely, a circulating medium.

Ever since political economy was made a science by Adam Smith, the circulating medium has been considered as bearing two characters, that of money, and that of merchandize. Locke, and probably many others before him, had remarked, that money is a measure of value. We have Avoirdupois, Troy weights, &c. to estimate the quantity of substances—we have inches, feet, miles, &c. to measure distances—and degrees, minutes and fractions, to measure parts of circles; in the same manner we have dollars, cents and mills, and pounds, shillings and pence, to measure the value of things, that is their efficacy in preventing and removing pain—or procuring and prolonging pleasure. A distinction was formerly made between real and fictitious value. This distinction, may be important to individuals, but as a maxim in economical science, it seems to be imaginary and useless. If a man purposes to expend a dollar in necessaries, you may hold an argument to persuade him to purchase thirty pounds of wheat, rather than ten pounds of beef; and if his object be to buy what will give him the longest subsistence, you have to prove that the wheat will afford more nutrition than the beef. This must evidently be a matter of experiment, but the investigation is never made, except for the purpose of determining on the cheapest

mode of supplying subsistence to the poor, or pointing out to the most needy of those who live independently, how they may avoid a degradation into that class. If luxuries be the object, it depends on the individual whether it be advisable for him to procure a ticket of admission to a musical entertainment, or to an exhibition of paintings. It is altogether an affair of taste, to reason about it would be absurd, since each one must decide for himself of what gratification he is capable through the medium of his eyes or his ears. Most of the articles of consumption, and use have the two characters of necessaries and luxuries—as necessaries, they have the power to sustain existence, and save from absolute suffering—as luxuries, their value consists in their effect of gratifying taste or causing pleasure. Hence the fact which every one has so often repeated and heard, that what is among necessaries to one man, makes part of the luxuries of another, and one whose wealth enables him to command all the external means of gratification, may become so accustomed to them, as to find them necessary, and may continue to use them, not because they produce any pleasurable sensations, but because the disuse would occasion suffering. All the refinements which ingenuity can devise for affecting the senses, are not so valuable to him, as a hoecake to a southern slave. This law of our constitution, is one of the most powerful agents in equalizing the conditions of men.

Convenience and taste are in a high degree artificial—a North-American Indian has a taste for intoxication, a Parisian for the theatre, and an inhabitant of Connecticut for *awakenings*. The value then which is conferred by taste on any substance, is mostly arbitrary. Both these views of the materials of living are important—the first has occupied the attention of Count Rumford, and others who have inquired into the means of supporting existence and rendering it comfortable, at the least possible expense—the latter, as far as our information extends, is an unappropriated and almost untouched subject; it involves the investigation of the comparative influence of the different kinds of tastes, and their objects in promoting the welfare of society. An able work upon this subject, would, we think, make an epoch in the history of economical science.

Publick taste or custom has an arbitrary control of value. A piece of broadcloth made up into a coat, according to the present fashion, may be worth fifty dollars; the same

piece made up in an antiquated mode, would not be worth perhaps fifteen, though it would make the wearer equally comfortable. Custom and the general taste, being among the most mutable of things,—though the value which commodities derive from them be in some sense fictitious,—afford no grounds for a division into those, the value of which is arbitrarily assigned by fashion, and those which derive their worth from other causes. Writers on political economy accordingly, have abandoned the old distinction of real and fictitious value, and agree in considering the market price of an article, its value ; and to know how much any thing is worth, we simply inquire for what it may be exchanged. Consequently the value of coin and bank-notes, is no more fictitious than that of bread.

We easily discriminate between the property in any thing and the subject of such property ; in other words, we do not confound the title which the owner has to land, with the land itself. There is an infinite variety of titles and claims to possession and use of those things, which are desirable or useful, so that almost every object, in the fair and abundant creation, in the midst of which we live, is apportioned out in property to various possessors, by laws and the operations of civil society. To prevent altercation and confusion, there must be some means of clearly distinguishing what belongs to each ; every individual who claims to own any thing, or have any right to use or derive advantage from it, must exhibit some evidence of this right. A deed, properly executed, is evidence of property in lands ;—a will, made with the requisite formalities, is evidence of a right to a legacy ;—a contract legally authenticated, is the evidence which each of the parties has, to enforce his claims against the other. A bank-note is of this description, it contains the terms of a stipulation between two parties, and being transferable at pleasure, is like any other negociable instrument. It is a proof, that the possessor has a claim for a specified portion of property, which is in the hands of those who issued the note. In this it has affinity to all other oral or written evidence of property. We do not consider deeds, bills of exchange, checks, &c. as merchandise, nor do we bank-notes. But silver and gold are as strictly commercial commodities, as iron, or flour. Bank-notes and coin have one common function; they are both money or measures of the value of marketable commodities.

Each of them has another character, in which they differ. Specie is among the great mass of articles of trade and manufacture; bank-notes are the records and proofs of contracts. Unless these different functions are kept in view, there is danger of vagueness and obscurity in speculations upon this subject.

An ingot of gold is doubtless an object of no little concern to the owner, but is of comparatively small importance to the publick; whatever be the magnitude of a private contract in regard to the parties interested, it is a trifling matter, considered in relation to the general interests of the community. The metal may be left to the rules of trade, and the contract to the laws regulating the forms and execution of agreements. But when the gold is coined, and the contract made assignable by transfer, both become intimately connected with the general welfare, and are accordingly made the subjects of dictinct legislation. The publick interest and convenience require, that the government should establish uniform weights and measures, of length and bulk. For the same reason, the measure of value should be particularly settled by the laws. The author of a letter to Mr. Baring, remarks, that prosperity depends no less on security of calculation, than on that of liberty and property;* and calculation can be secure only where the laws and the currency are uniform. And what better way is there of making a currency uniform, than that by which a weight or measure of solid contents is made so—by a bushel, is meant a capacity of certain depth and diameter—the French unit of weight, is a glass cube of given dimensions—our laws in a similar manner, make gold and silver the standard of admeasurement or estimation of value. As by bushel, we mean a given number of square inches; so by dollar in value, we mean so much of any thing as may be exchanged in the market, for a little over three hundred and seventy-five grains of silver. Nothing can be more intelligible, nothing more uniform; in fact it is as perfect, as the nature of things permits. The universal suffrage of mankind, is in favour of gold and silver, as measures of value; and one would hardly expect to hear the substitution of a new standard proposed. Yet Mr. Bollman thinks it not only possible, but advisable to make a change. Many

* American Review, Vol. II. p. 255.

others are inclined to embrace the same opinion, in which they fortify themselves by the example of the Bank of England. We are glad to find Mr. Dallas thinking otherwise; he remarks in his report, that, though Great Britain has succeeded in maintaining the credit of a paper currency not exchangeable for specie, yet a difference of circumstances may render it impossible for us to imitate their example. This diversity of circumstances, is obvious to the most superficial observer. A member of parliament says, in a letter to Mr. M'Arthur, "England is a great company of insurance; the whole insures the parts or individuals, and the individuals are the security for the whole."* That nation showed a practical conviction of this truth in 1797, when the bank ceased to pay in specie. The government was involved with the bank, and the people with the government—all must sink or swim together. While the bank-notes were below par, the bank had been paying away, and receiving again, the same gold and silver at a great loss. It was obliged to give 4*l.* sterling for an ounce of gold bullion; this the government coined for it free of expense; but when it was coined, it was worth to the bank but 3*l.* 12*s.* 10 1–2*d.* sterling, and it could purchase its own notes with the coin only to that amount. This gave speculators an opportunity of carrying on a clever sort of trade with the bank. They collected bank-notes, presented them for payment, took cash for them at par, and then having melted the coin down, they sold to the bank again for notes at a profit of more than two shillings the ounce. Thus the metal was kept in circulation from the vaults of the bank to their crucibles, and then to the mint; and for each revolution, the bank paid at the rate of more than a guinea upon a pound in weight. An invasion was apprehended, and some creditors of the bank, thinking that their money would be safest in their own keeping, drew specie from the vaults to hoard. Exchange with the continent, being at the same time against England, caused an exportation of the precious metals. Indeed the ruin with which Bonaparte had threatened England, seemed to be rapidly approaching through the medium of her commercial and financial systems. The situation justified desperate expedients. The government interposed between the bank and its creditors, and by thus absolving

* M'Arthur's Financial Facts.

that establishment from its contracts, or at least suspending the execution of them, it saved the nation. But this could not have been done without the support of publick opinion; all intelligent men knowing that the government was implicated with the bank, and that they themselves were implicated with both, not only approved the measure, but entered into associations in London, and all the principal towns, to continue to receive the notes of the bank at their accustomed value. When we become so implicated with our government, and when a similar crisis occurs, it will be early enough to adopt Mr. Bollman's project of a paper standard, or what would be more simple, though the same in principle, the government may make paper money of its own, as it did during the revolution.

The theorists make too great a parade with this measure of the British government. We admit that it establishes a new fact in political economy; it was before thought impossible, that a nation could carry on extensive operations of war, commence and finish without the use of the precious metals, and still preserve its credit, and not materially depreciate its currency. But we are to keep in mind the remarkable combination of circumstances, such as had never occurred before, and perhaps will not again in the history of the world. It must not be forgotten also, that the measure was supported by the expectation, that the notes of the bank will finally be redeemed according to the promise of which they are the evidence.

We think that our readers will not hesitate to conclude with us, that gold and silver are the best standards of value.* But a standard is good for nothing unless it be used. Unless you apply the measure, you might as well be without it. And what other way is there of measuring value, except that of exchange? There is no mode of making a commodity worth a given weight of gold, but by making it exchangeable for that weight. The propositions are in fact identical.

But, says Mr. Bollman and others, who wish to substitute a paper-mill for the Mexican mines, and Perkins's plates for

* Platina might be added, and if coined and put into circulation, bearing the same value in comparison with gold and silver that it now does, it would be very convenient to the banks, since the East India merchants would not be continually drawing it from their vaults for exportation.

the mint, it is impossible to restore a metalick currency, on account of the scarcity of specie. Let the banks send abroad and procure it. But this will require some time. And what then—have not the banks been taking time these four years, and do they now think of making use of this fraudulent pretext to absolve themselves from their contracts? It may be asked, what they shall send to exchange for specie? Doubtless there are merchants willing to import gold and silver for them, and take in exchange the notes of their debtors. But the banks would lose by the exchange. Intolerable! it would to be sure be matter of unspeakable regret, if those corporations, which have for a long time been making promises, which they knew they could not fulfil, and by this deception have divided twelve, fifteen and twenty per cent. annually upon their capital, should be called upon to make any sacrifice. What, it may be inquired, can the government do in this case? It may do as much towards making the banks pay specie, as it has done towards enabling them to carry on this profitable traffick in their notes. It has given them currency by receiving them for taxes and loans, and paying them to its creditors; and by refusing to receive them, it may soon stop their circulation. A reasonable time ought to be assigned, at which the government will receive the notes of no bank which does not pay specie. At least, some arrangement should be made which might prevent the port of Boston paying five, ten and fifteen per cent. on importations, more than is paid at the southern ports.

Mr. Bollman estimates the amount of the circulating medium in the United States, at one hundred and fifty millions of dollars; and says, that to resume specie payments, fifty millions of specie will be necessary. We do not know what are the grounds of this opinion; but he states a fact which does not much corroborate it. The bank of the United States, he says, at the commencement of its operation, issued notes to nine times the amount of its specie. There was in June, 1815, in the banks of Massachusetts, specie to the amount of 7,400,000 dollars. The deposits and specie in the hands of individuals, were at a low estimation 2,600,000. Suppose there were in the other states of New-England half that sum. Allowing that the quantity in all the other States is equal to that in New-England, there is in the United States, specie to the amount of 30,000,000 of dollars. This is one fifth of the circulating

medium required by the exigencies of the country. A small addition to these resources, and proper management, would restore the currency. It is true, that the charters of the banks in Massachusetts contain an excellent provision, that they shall not owe debts to more than twice the value of the specie in their vaults. But then banking companies may be incorporated, that may subscribe stock as well as money, in imitation of the plan proposed by Hamilton, and adopted by Congress in 1791, and which Mr. Dallas proposes again in his report.

It is impossible to say what amount of notes may be issued on a given quantity of specie, since it depends on the advantages which the exportation of specie offers, on the skill and integrity of the banking company, and its hold on the publick confidence.

Application has been made to Congress, to assist the banks in resuming specie payments, by prohibiting the exportation of the precious metals. Would it not be better to impose a small duty on the exportation, as it would not so much abridge the liberty, which is the life of trade, and might be less likely to prevent the importation?

We do not agree with Mr. Bollman, that bank-notes should be a tender, nor do we subscribe to his opinion, that there should be but one bank in the United States. It is needless to discuss the latter opinion, for there is no probability of the abolishment of the state banks. We know not why the Constitution should have left, in the individual states, the power of constituting corporations for banking, while it took from them that of coining money, unless it was supposed, that the prohibition of making any thing a tender in payment of debts, except gold and silver, would prevent any abuse of that power. From the manner in which Mr. Dallas expresses himself, in his last report, we suspect, that he supposes the government of the United States to possess the power of making what it pleases, a tender. We pass this topick by also, under the impression, that whatever may be thought of the power of Congress in this respect, no one will deem it advisable at present to transgress the limits prescribed to the individual states.

Some regret that the number of our banks is so great. There are more than five hundred private banks in England, which is a good authority for the pretty liberal multiplication of such institutions. Adam Smith is of opinion, that

every considerable town should have a bank. The business is on this account less profitable, but this argument may be urged in favour of any monopoly. When bank-notes become the general currency, and half or more of the gold and silver has been exported, it is said, that the banks, if called upon, could not fulfil their engagements. This would no doubt be true, if you could persuade all the holders of notes to demand an immediate payment. But the difficulty is, to form a general combination for this purpose; to prevent which, and render it ineffectual, is one branch of the art of banking; and if a corporation conducts its business prudently and skilfully, it will always be as able to fulfil its engagements, as any other trading company. Besides the specie in the vaults, or the capital paid in by the stockholders, a bank always has discounted paper, equal to the amount of its notes in circulation. It chooses its securities and the time of payment. One cannot conceive, that an institution of this kind should become insolvent, except by folly or knavery. Every merchant of extensive connexions, generally owes more than he could pay with the money he keeps on hand, but these debts are due at different times, and he makes arrangements to meet them, by collecting debts due to himself; of these debts, some are probably contracted before hand, others he creates by making new sales. The situation of the bank then is similar to that of the merchant, except that the bank trades only in contracts and specie, the merchant trades in these and numerous other things: the merchant knows when he shall be called upon to make payment, the bank is trusted indefinitely, and is constantly liable to demand. The bank must calculate on the probability of any demands being made, and what their extent may be. The ability of each depends upon that of the debtors to each. When affairs go on in a regular course, a bank may calculate pretty safely on the time and amount of the demands to which it may be subject. At least it may safely assign limits, which they cannot well exceed. It must consequently proportion its issues to the result of this calculation. Besides the small demand for specie, created by the domestick expenditure of the customers of a bank, we think of only four causes which can operate to return its notes upon it. Rival banks frequently run upon each other, till each finds it a loss of trouble and expense, and is convinced of the other's resources being sufficient—notes are brought in when

the holder wishes to make payments or purchases where they are not current—the same happens when the credit of the bank is shaken, or a political revolution is apprehended. Some probable calculation may be made in regard to the rivalship of other similar institutions, and their means of collecting and returning to a bank its notes. A comparison of the extent within which the notes of a bank circulate, with the extent and character of the commercial relations of the town in which the bank is situated, afford some data for calculating on the demand for specie created by the necessity of making foreign payments. Here the balance of trade is to be taken into consideration, that is, whether all the articles exported from a place are sold to the exporters for a greater or less aggregate amount, than all the imported articles are purchased. For example, suppose a foreign fleet should visit Boston in the autumn, and there should be a sale made of every thing exported from the town during the year, and each seller should receive from the agents of the fleet, the price of whatever he may have sold in specie: business then ceases till the next spring, when the fleet returns with foreign articles to supply the town for the ensuing year. Those who were vendors in autumn now become purchasers. If the aggregate amount of the purchases exceed that of the sales, the balance of trade is against us, provided we have the means of subsistence within ourselves, and have no trafick whatever, by which property is carried out of the town and brought into it. It is evident, that this cannot be often repeated; our money will soon be exhausted. But if the fleet belong to our own citizens, the case is very different. We build and rig their ships, and supply them with provisions, for all which they pay us in the autumn, in addition to the price of the articles exported. The merchants will charge the expenses of the outfits and those of the voyage upon the cargoes. We may, then, buy in the spring of the important articles, to a greater amount than that for which we sold the articles of exportation, without, on the whole, sustaining any loss; we may have part of the money remaining on hand. Thus, though the balance of trade, according to the common mode of estimating it, is against us, we may be flourishing and growing rich. But if the amount of our sales in a foreign market, did not exceed that of our purchases of imported articles in our own, our losses would soon deprive us of the means of trading. We hence see the

cause of those perplexities and errours, into which speculators have been led by calculations concerning the balance of trade. Had the embarrassment been confined to writers, it would have been well, but governments have sometimes acted upon erroneous inductions, derived from the same source, and in attempting to regulate trade in such a manner that the balance should be adjusted to their own wishes, they have restrained and discouraged it. If in the case supposed, the balance should continue to be in favour of Boston, specie would accumulate, and unless it were wrought up in some manufacture, requiring a constant supply, as in China, some outlet would be sought for the superfluous specie; we should send away to procure those new conveniences or luxuries which should happen first to offer, this course of trade would cause a quantity of specie to pass annually through the channels of trade in the town. It would naturally be lodged in the vaults of the bank in its passage. This was actually the case in the former regular course of business. We sold goods to the southern states to a greater amount than those we purchased of them; and waggon-loads of specie were transported from New-York and Philadelphia to Boston. We did not procure furs and skins in sufficient quantities, to purchase all the goods imported from China. The balance between us and the southern states, went to cancel the balance against us in the East-India trade. When there is a current of specie through a commercial place, it is much more easy to keep the banks replenished, than when it rests in a stagnant deposit. In the latter case, as the banks of the shire towns in the interiour experience, it is difficult to supply any casual diminutions of specie, just as a cistern will be kept more uniformly full, if a stream be running into it and out of it at the same time, than if the waste of evaporation and discharge be supplied by buckets. The alarm then, which has prevailed, lest the East-India trade should drain away all the specie of the commercial world, is groundless; it is as much as if we should fear that we should have no cotton for our manufactories, because, part of what is brought from the south, is shipped to Liverpool. The transmit will afford a more sure supply for our domestick manufacturers generally; though the foreign demand might at times be so great, as to cause the re-shipments to be too extensive, before the diminished quantity would raise the price in our own market.

Just so in regard to specie, some extraordinary cause for exportation, may, at certain times, drain it away, and produce a scarcity; or the sources whence we obtain it, may sometimes be less copious, and produce the same effect: but if trade and industry flourish, the deficiency will be temporary, and those who are suffering by it, will soon supply it. But this does not always take place soon enough to prevent some general embarrassment. It requires some time to change settled habits. We must not only know a change to be necessary, we must also feel it. A man who has been accustomed to the indulgences of affluence, does not contract his expenses within the limits of his income, immediately on his circumstances being reduced; he generally continues them till he finds his bills troublesome. The commercial habits of a nation have a similar operation. If in the ordinary course of business, a considerable quantity of specie has been transmitted through a trading town, and by a change of circumstances, the introduction of it ceases, still those who have been in the habit of carrying it away, will continue the practice till none can be obtained. The consequence is a general embarrassment for want of specie. We have been describing the situation of Great Britain, and also that of the United States. The evil does not appear in its natural form in either country. We have spoken of the situation and necessities of Great Britain. In the United States, our southern brethren, instead of allowing the cistern to be drained till the efflux should have ceased by the diminution of the quantity, raised the bottom, and thus gave the vessel the appearance of being full. The situation of the country required it, they say, and the war could not otherwise have been carried on. For ourselves, we do not believe this, but it is unnecessary to attempt to refute it, since allowing it to be true, it is no justification of the banks. It is absurd to suppose, that the directors of each of the hundred banks, which refused to receive their notes, according to their agreements previously to this measure, held a deliberation on the state of the nation, and concluded, that the publick exigencies required of them to violate their engagements, and unless they should substitute their own paper for the legal coin, the government could no longer go on. In thus interfering by an assumed legislative power, and regulating the circulating medium, these corporations arrogated one of the most important func-

tions of the legislature. We believe that the situation of the nation would have been much better at all times, and more especially at the present, had the southern banks adopted the conduct of the eastern, and confined themselves to the exercise of the powers given by their charters. When the quantity of specie began to be diminished, and the state of the country produced a general distrust of each other among commercial men, the eastern banks contracted their business within narrower limits; and thus saved their credit, and enabled merchants to judge more accurately of each other's circumstances, and act with greater safety, while the southern banks increased their issues, and by thus overtrading, for the sake of a temporary gain, an artificial, inflated state of things was produced; from which just dimensions and proportions disappeared, and accuracy of calculation was impossible. Conjecture took its place, and speculation was substituted for the regular process of business.

It is unnecessary to consider all the circumstances which may affect the credit of a bank; its reputation, like that of a mercantile house, will generally depend upon the punctuality of its payments, and this again on the skilful management of its affairs.

The apprehension of a revolution is a conjuncture exempted from all calculation.

Competitions in the demands of specie for the adjustment of balances of trade, and the circumstances which may effect the credit of a bank, are objects of attention to directors; a knowledge of which, constitutes part of their science: but the address and perspicacity, acquired by experience, are much more important. The ocean of affairs is liable to storms and agitations; besides, the charts and tables of science, the navigator must learn to descry, with an almost instinctive sagacity, the signs of change and omens of danger.

The agents of the corporation, upon taking a view of circumstances which have been mentioned, calculate how many of its notes can possibly be returned upon them. If they have a reasonable degree of skill in their business, they can make such arrangements, that the probability of their being able to meet all the demands that can be made upon them, will almost amount to a certainty. The idea then, that banks can pay specie according to their contracts,

is not fictitious or illusory, nor is there any thing mysterious in their operation, by which they are distinguished from other commercial transactions.

The use of the publick debt, as part of the stock of a bank, is attended with some inconveniences, and some advantages. The credit of a bank founded on this species of capital, is liable to vary with that of the publick. Next to specie, the best capital for a bank, is that which is most saleable, and least liable to depression of price. A real property in a flourishing town, would be preferable to any other, but not so good as the securities of substantial men, or those of the publick, since these are more easily converted into cash. A publick debt may be useful by giving credit to paper, and thus increasing the circulating capital, but this does not prove a publick debt to be on the whole advantageous, for a government might as well borrow money for this purpose, as to run in debt for other purposes, and use the stock for this. Suppose the government of the United States to have owed nothing in 1790, and the people to have been exhausted by the war, and unable to recover themselves, for want of a sufficient circulating medium, to give facility to business, and restore commercial confidence. Suppose that individuals had not been able or disposed to form a bank. The government would have promoted the prosperity of the country just as much, by borrowing seven million five hundred thousand dollars of Holland, and depositing it in the bank of the United States, as it did by authorising the bank by its charter, to receive subscriptions of publick stock to that amount. The publick would then have shared in the dividends, which would more than have cancelled the interest. It was in the way we have mentioned; namely, by increasing the circulating property, that Hamilton said a publick debt might be a publick blessing! He never said, that the mere fact of being in debt was more desirable to a government, than to an individual. The principal advantage, which the advocates of national debts attribute to them, is the support which a government derives from its creditors. But it pays dear, and it would be much better economy to hire supporters when it needs them, than to keep a host of idle auxiliaries in constant pay.

We test the character of an administration of government, by its influence upon industry—the manners are best which animate the mind, and put in action the muscle of

the nation. Before the adoption of the constitution, and the introduction of system into our commerce and revenues, the unwieldy strength of our people, was giddily floundering among the crude elements of national power and wealth, without method and without effect. The introduction of order and security, produced what seemed to be a preternatural change. Yet, nothing more was done than to liberate and disencumber the energies of the people. The most perfect laws can but give to every kind of laudable industry, its natural reward—the fruits of its labour. It is by attempting something more, that governments most frequently abuse their power; instead of giving talents and industry place, they streighten and encumber them.

The Ichneumon, being an Essay on Politics. Written in the District of Maine, July, 1814. *By Don Quixote. They hate him that rebuketh in the gate, and they abhor him that speaketh uprightly. Amos 5th.* 10*th.*

This pamphlet is a curiosity. The author of this political Ichneumon, which was to destroy the crocodile eggs of Democracy, has detailed his plan with such bold frankness, and inimitable simplicity, as must excite the wonder of political cowardice, and the smile of political experience. A work of this kind has long been a desideratum; we have heard so much from those egregious oracles, the exclusive friends of the people, about monarchial designs, and deep laid plots for introducing royalty, nobility, &c.—that being wholly opposed to any such change, and utterly incredulous about its possibility, we were gratified to find, the scheme in a tangible form at last; we have, it is true, heard one or two old men, tired of the vanities of life, and prevented by the apathy of age from strenuous exertions, naturally wishing for nothing but tranquility, flatter themselves it would be found under a king—and one or two young men, who without energy to obtain distinction among their equals, "holding between their fingers a pouncet box," would discourse most learnedly on the effects of monarchy, whose operation they had never witnessed; and on the dangers of Republicks, which they had never felt—but, we never heard any middle aged person, who could read and write, wish to subvert our own institu-

tions, or believe that we could endure those of royalty. We then, in the present instance, felt a sort of prying, eager curiosity to get at the secret history of this author, expecting to find some insidious, inveterate aristocrat, with a wardrobe of tarnished Court-dresses, with stars and ribands ready for display, and perhaps daggers, and "Foreign Gold"—we were, however, disappointed, and our feelings were greatly relieved, when we were told that this dangerous writer, was a humble, and rather visionary character, residing in a remote village; and that he distributed his pamphlet on the way to this metropolis in a one-horse sleigh, mounted on sacks of wool from his own flock, the proceeds of which were to furnish the necessaries for his family.

Having communicated this account of the author, to prevent in that manly, pure, independent class of men, the leaders of the self named Republicans, a useless solicitude for the safety of their flock, a gentle flock, whose fleece rewards the vigils of its shepherds; we shall now proceed to develope the views of Don Quixote, by extracts from his work. It will be recollected that it was written during the late war, and in a district particularly exposed to its pressure; some of his reasonings therefore, are affected by temporary considerations, but the intrinsic beauty and feasibility of the plan are permanent. We begin with his first chapter.

"Chapter 1. It would be a very diverting book, could we meet with one, containing many unlearned men's opinions concerning the best mode of government. I presume we should find greater varieties than even Montesquieu was acquainted with.

"The christian powers of Europe have for several centuries past been divided into Monarchies and Republicks. In Switzerland, which was a Republick, Democracy is said to have prevailed more than in Holland and Venice, which have likewise been called Republicks, but in both these, Aristocracy is said to have prevailed. In France, Spain and Portugal, the governments have been called Monarchical. In England, the government has been called a Limited Monarchy. These, with some other inconsiderable variations, have prevailed all over Christendom.—About forty years ago, in this country, a decided majority of the people, gave the preference to a Republican form of government, and we then shook off, after a seven years war, our colonial dependence on Great Britain. Since which, having few rich

among us, our government has continued to be sufficiently Democratical.

"But a misfortune which has attended our democratical poverty, the emoluments for office have been sought after with such avidity, that the seekers of office have not failed to revile their rivals upon every occasion, with the most unchristian, uncharitable, and ungentlemanly language. The consequence is, that now the two parties, which are called Federal and Republican, have but a very poor opinion of the virtues of each other.

"Whenever the Federalists have the success to prevail in their elections, the Republicans are sure to oppose every political measure which is adopted by their successful rival; and it is exactly the same thing whenever the Republicans prevail in their elections, the Federalists then hang like a dead weight, or like a hog tied by the nose, they make a horrid noise, and it is with difficulty they can at any rate be got along. It has been said, from this collision of parties, that liberty is preserved.—If this be true, this is one instance of an evil tree bearing good fruit.

"From what I have been able to learn, Republican more than Monarchical governments, have always been attended by these political fermentations, and it is highly probable from the nature of mankind, always will be.

"No man will, I think, deny that it is best to have our best men selected for officers, for when an unprincipled man gets into office, that certainly is an evil tree bearing evil fruit.

"In the present state of things, when the people are about to elect a man into office, they never ask whether he be a good neighbor, good father, good husband, or good son, notwithstanding these are the works by which we may know him. They never think of all this, no, the only question they ask, is he on our side? does he hate the Federalists? or does he hate the Republicans? the case is much the same where the President or Governor has to nominate to office; he, the President, or Governor, is so dependent for his future election upon his own party, that he is obliged by self interest to confine himself in his appointments to that party only. Hence it comes to pass that the opposite party, knowing they have nothing to expect but to be slaves to their successful rivals, during their continuance in office, leave no stone unturned to get them out of office, and get themselves in. In a time of peace, I confess, that we might get along with

such a state of things, but in a time of war, when our adversary is powerful, when he is at our doors, when he has already overrun a part of our country, when he is attacking us at a great many different points, surely it has become necessary that we should be united."

The work afterwards proceeds in the form of a dialogue between "An old Tory" and a "Republican." His chapters are not tedious, and we shall lay those before our readers, which contain the main features of his project.

"CHAP. VI. How to procure the necessary European alliances in the present state of things, I must confess, has for some time past appeared to me too difficult to attempt, but this singular Old Tory says no such thing, nothing is more easy, that we have it in our power to become immediately one of the greatest and most respectable nations in the world. Ah, said I, come let us hear; how can this be brought about? In the first place, says he, there must be a bill brought before the next Congress to alter our Constitution so far as respects the duration of the Presidency, this point being carried, the next to be obtained is, that the President shall be chosen for life, and the office be hereditary in his family. This will place us at least in as respectable a situation as the Dutch are placed; before they could establish their independency they were obliged to choose the Prince of Orange stadtholder, and make the office hereditary in his family—but it seems in the late revolutions in Europe, even that state of things has been thought too nearly related to Republicanism, they have therefore made the stadtholder of Holland king of the Netherlands, whereby it happens there is not a republick in Europe, independent of kings, except it be Switzerland; and what is to be their situation I have not yet learned.

"CHAP. VII. But are you sure, said I, that a bill will pass the Congress for making the office of the President hereditary. Yes, says he, I am sure; for both the parties have now ran themselves aground—the Republicans, by embarking in the same cause with Bonaparte—the Federalists, by promising to do more than they dare attempt; therefore, they will both be glad at any rate, to be relieved from their present unpleasant situation.

"But will the people at large, approve of this alteration? Yes, more than half the people I talk with, say, make what change you please, I am sure our situation cannot be altered for the worse.

"If I am not mistaken, said I, you have always been in favour of monarchical governments. I have, said he. Will you be good enough to tell me, said I, why you give the preference to a monarchical, rather than to a republican government?

"You must confess, said he, that it is important to have our officers circumspect in their behaviour, and likewise, that it is important to have power enough somewhere, to remove them from office when they become unfaithful to the government, or oppressive to the people. Yes, said I, be sure there ought to be such power; well, says he, does any such power exist in our government? Yes, said I, in either the cases you mention, the officer would not be re-elected; this, replied he, is true in theory, but not in practice—who will tell the people of the officers' faults, asked he; I answered, if the officer be Republican, the Federalists will tell of it. What good will that do? said he; whatever the Federalists tell about a Republican officer, the Republicans will not believe it, but they will say, it is a Federal lie.

"If a Federal or Republican officer were to eat a young child every morning for his breakfast, it would be impossible to inform the people of it; for if he was a Federalist, his party would not tell of it. It would reflect upon their judgment in getting him appointed; and it would be exactly the same thing, were he a Republican. It is impossible to make the parties have a worse opinion of one another than they now have. A Federalist had rather submit to the British than have the government any longer in the hands of the Republicans; it is the same with the Republicans, they had rather choose that the government of the country should be given to the Dey of Algiers, than to have it given to the Federalists.—Now, this being the case, what comfort can there be in living under a Republican government?"

"Chap. viii. But are you sure, said I, things will be any better in a monarchical government? Yes, said he, in a limited monarchy. Where trial by jury secured, and all laws originate in the House of Representatives, it will

always be the interest of the Prince to conciliate the affections of the people; in this way only will he be able to obtain money; the moment he becomes unpopular, he will be in danger of experiencing the fate of Charles the First, and many other equally unfortunate monarchs; besides, his office being hereditary, this will render him independent of parties; he will not be obliged to choose his officers out of one particular party; he will have the whole people to choose out of; and as office is what we are all seeking after, and either party may equally have hopes of obtaining the prize, there is no danger, that about one half the people will be hanging like a dead weight upon the government, for the Prince will always have it in his power to buy off the popular leaders of both the parties, by nominating them to office."

"CHAP. IX. But, said I, would you have a House of Lords too? Yes, said he, by all means. In what manner would you have them chosen? said I. He replied, they ought to be chosen in the same manner as our Senate is chosen; have the same power our Senate now have; only let the office be hereditary; without this aristocratical part of the government nothing would be respectable. Such a House of independent nobles is absolutely necessary to form a kind of check to the democratick turbulence of the House of Representatives. Without a House of Lords, the government would hardly be respectable, and who wants to live under a disrespectable government? The more respectable the government is, the less danger will there be of civil war; and, in the present state of the world, the less danger of any war at all."

"CHAP. X. What difference, said I, would you have in the House of Representatives? None at all, said he, let them be chosen in the same manner, and for the same time. Would you have any difference in our state governments? Very little, said he, the only difference I would have in them, the governors should be appointed by the king during pleasure; but his council should be chosen in the same manner as now, and be of the same duration; and all the officers, whose appointments are now during good behavior, should be held for the same length of time, and be removed in the same way. What alteration would you have in the militia laws? None at all; but it should clearly be

specified, said he, that a drafted militia man should never be compelled to go out of his own state, nor in any case whatever, be obliged to serve more than three months in one year.

"But may not circumstances, said I, so happen, that a deviation from this rule may be necessary? It may be, said he, but it must be a case of urgent necessity; in that case, said he, if the people like the government, there will never be wanting volunteers. The government always ought to have the power of employing and directing the movements of such; but they very rarely ought to have the power of dragging peaceable and useful citizens from their homes, and compelling them to endure all the hardships of a common soldier. If the people like their government, they would always be ready to contribute to its support; if they did not like it, they never ought to be compelled to support it. Why do you have hereditary offices in our government then? said I. For this reason only, said he, to make the government more respectable abroad, and that our first magistrate should not be under the necessity of being the tool of a party."

"CHAP. XI. But would you have, said I, the present Senate of the United States to be the House of Lords? No, says he; I would start fair, let a new election take place, and let the members of the present House of Representatives have a chance to succeed in the election. The reason of this is obvious, for without this provision they would not be so willing to give their consent to the proposed alteration in the government."

"CHAP. XII. Well, said I, in what manner would you have the King chosen? In the same manner, said he, that we have heretofore chosen a President. Who would you pitch upon, said I, suppose it was in your power to nominate? Come let us hear who would you recommend? This subject, said he, admits of but one single question, it certainly ought to be that man who could do us the most good. You would then act, said I, as the Roman soldiers sometimes did; you would sell the office to the highest bidder. Not quite so neither, said he, there is this difference; their conduct was mercenary, mine should be patriotic, and I would recommend that man who would in all probability do us the most good—that man who would soonest be able to procure for us a lasting and honourable peace—that man who would

be able to procure for us the greatest enlargement of territory, for you will find I am not one of those who want to live in a little wrangling Republic; no, I had rather see all the world united under one great and respectable monarchy, than to see it further subdivided."

"Chap. xiii. You would then, I suppose, be glad, said I, to have this country united to the British empire. Not so neither, said he; I would rather see Great Britain become a colony to America; it would be unnatural, said he, that the lesser should govern the greater territory. Have you any hope, said I, that this will ever be the case! Yes, I have, said he, a hope; the thing is possible, said he, and therefore ought to be hoped for, and even attempted. You say it is possible, said I; for God's sake point out the way; that I can do easily, said he; but as this is an important part of the business, we will postpone the consideration of it to another chapter."

"Chap. xiv. Let us choose for our King one of the youngest of the British Princes; but before we do this, let us stipulate with the British government that they shall relinquish to us all their territories, except the West-India Islands, in North America. If they will not do this without a pecuniary consideration, let us pay it; the money may be borrowed in this case of their own subjects. Let us then purchase from the Spaniards a relinquishment of Louisiana and the Floridas; money for this purpose may likewise be borrowed in England; all these purchases will not cost so much as continuing the war one year. Our extensive and our convenient harbours will be filled with ships and seamen from every part of the world; the revenues from this extensive commerce, will, in a very short time, be greater than we shall have any occasion for; in the mean time, let a navy be provided and encouraged by every reasonable encouragement, let an army be kept on our wilderness frontiers, this will for ever secure us from Indian wars; by this means the Indians may be progressively organized into regular armies, Christian ministers of all denominations may constantly, at the expense of government, be sent among them; in a very short time their civilization and conversion to Christianity may be expected; then will come the time when every American may sit under his own vine aud own fig-tree, and have none to make him afraid. Then will come the time, when the wilderness may truly be said to blossom like the rose."

It is difficult to make a serious remark on such a scheme as this; but if there is any part of it, that has more *naiveté* than another, it is the supposition, that the English government would give us their possessions on this continent, and do every thing to aid us to become a great power, if we would only assume a monarchical form of government, and take one of their "sons" to be at the head of it. Extravagant as this may appear, there are scores of worthy citizens whose sagacious intellect early discovered this fact; and who have regularly voted against certain individuals, because they were fully convinced of their being employed to carry this plot into effect. Fatuity like this, may be cited against our reasonings in favour of republican government; but, it should be recollected, what has been sometimes forgot, that it is not peculiar to republicks, and that under any form of government the same folly will exist, and exert its influence on publick measures. For sufficient proof of this, we need only mention the "no popery" cry in England, and its extraordinary effects. We take the authour's last chapter, for the sake of the humour contained in the anecdote at the close of it, which we do not recollect to have seen before.

"Chap. xxv. But suppose, said I, in all this business of party dissension and civil war, you should be mistaken; suppose the fact should be, that there is a secret understanding between the leaders of both parties, and that they have agreed, so far we will go and no further; what danger in that case would arise from the present division into parties? In that case I grant, said he, there would not be in theory so much danger, but in practice I have my doubts. You know, said he, political horses sometimes throw very skilful riders; let them who are in the saddle look to it. And now by way of diversion, said the Old Tory, I will tell you a story: In the reign of Henry eighth, the House of Lords being about to patch up an impeachment against Cranmer, ordered the door-keeper not to admit him. Cranmer came to the door, but could get no admittance. The King had private intelligence of what was going on, he appeared likewise at the door and demanded admission; the door was immediately opened, the King went in stern foremost, bowing and scraping to Cranmer; walk in my good Lord Archbishop, said the King; he then took Cranmer by the hand, led him to his seat, and after seating himself he thus addressed himself to their Lordships—fie upon you,

gentlemen, fie! why will you not treat one another as you ought? Here is my good Lord Archbishop, as worthy of his seat in this House as any of you, and you compelled him to stand at your door as a porter.—Treat one another like gentlemen, said the King (at the same time getting up and shaking his cane) if you do not, thank God there is one lives yet, who is able to make you."

"This story, said I, holds up to view a tyrannical King, the remembrance of which has aroused anew all my Republican and anti-royal prejudices.—True, said he, I told it for that very purpose; but now, said he, let us compare this state of things to what followed in the weak reign of his daughter Mary.—At Smithfield there was burned to death, many of the best men in England.—If you will have patience, said he, in order to give you my notions on this subject I will tell you another story."

"When, after the death of Oliver Cromwell, General Monk was marching his army toward London, various conjectures circulated respecting which party General Monk would join; for the nation was now split into a number of parties; at length it was rumoured that Monk's intentions were to restore the King; an old friend of Monk, a zealous Republican, heard the story, but would not believe it; he went to the General and asked him if the report was true; It is indeed, said the General. Is it possible? said the old gentleman; the very idea of a King sounds to me as bad as the devil; true, said Monk, just so it sounds to me; but is there nothing worse than the devil? said Monk. No, said the old gentleman, how can any thing be worse than the devil? I will tell you what, said Monk—hell broke loose, is worse than the devil a thousand times."

Before we advance some opinions in favour of Republican government in this country, let us make a few observations on the state of monarchy in Europe. It is not our object to criminate that form of government, which is the only one suited to the state of society, and the habits of Europe; and which may exist with a greater or less infusion of freedom, in proportion to the morality and intelligence of the subjects of it. Let us select the limited monarchy of England, confessedly the most mild, the most free, and wielding the most powerful means. A slight examination will shew some of the disadvantages of this form government, where it ex-

ists in the greatest perfection. We are not ignorant of its advantages, we are not pretending to decide, whether the latter do not greatly overbalance the former; we do not intend to discuss the question, whether that nation is susceptible of a pure republican form of government, whether it could have existed under that form, during the recent period of European convulsion. But as remote observers are apt to consider only the favourable side of the picture; we wish to point out some of the shades to those who, having seen it at a distance, are struck only with its glaring lights and prominent beauties. It may at least strengthen our cause with a negative argument.

We say nothing of its early periods; they were a tissue of horrours, not owing to the form of government, but to the state of society. Down to the reign of Queen Anne, insurrections, civil wars and persecutions, were frequent occurrences, and even to a later period, the heads of rebel noblemen were occasionally stuck on poles in the metropolis of the kingdom.

We will assume the period of the momentous and brilliant reign of the present sovereign. This embraces a time when civilization, refinement, and knowledge have made the greatest progress; when able lawyers have defined, skilful advocates defended, and great statesmen maintained, the civil and in some instances the political rights, of the subject. In this period of rapid communication, of wide spread intelligence, and of active humanity, let us run over some of the shadows to which we have alluded. In the first place, Ireland, containing more than one quarter of the population, has been almost constantly harassed with civil war, insurrections, burnings, plunderings, assassinations, and horrours of every description, that have seldom left it for a period of any duration free from the burthen of martial law, in other words, military despotism. Many counties of England itself, have been partially submitted to its forms, and every considerable town owes its quiet, in part, to the establishment of barracks and the presence of soldiers; they have not, however, always experienced security, and all the great towns in the kingdom, including the capital itself, have been, during this reign, sometimes in the hands of the most brutal mobs, in some instances, for days together. We do not mean to assert, that it would not have been much worse under any other form of government; or that they would have continued to exist to this day as a republick. Yet we will say, *en*

passant, if the English had been as familiar with republican habits, as the Dutch, and their character had been long adapted to its forms, that they would have been as triumphant a republick as they now are a monarchy. Holland was not conquered because it was a republick, but because it was a small power overwhelmed by large ones.

If then under the best regulated monarchy, the people are not exempt occasionally from calamities like these, is private virtue absolved from publick exertions? Are the security of individual property, the enjoyment of personal rights and privileges, the repose of luxury and refinement, the spontaneous fruits of royalty, requiring neither cultivation nor watchfulness? The real condition of that country is far indeed from this state of torpid enjoyment. It is true that there are crowds of quiet, obscure individuals of various ranks, who never agitate their minds with publick concerns, and whose highest feeling of patriotism, is the mechanical result of local habits. Such men may be found, and will be unmolested in every country; such existed under the wild democracy of Athens, and thousands of the same kind were luxuriating in undisturbed voluptuousness, under the protecting despotism of Napoleon. But to men who wish to obtain eminence in society, who are anxious to insert their names in the history of their country, who strive for present power, or future fame, and are ambitious of any share either in managing or watching any part of administration, severe duties and constant efforts are necessary.

There is even less difference in this respect between this country and England, than many persons imagine. The possession of political influence there, requires as much, perhaps more exertion, than it does here. The most powerful peers are obliged to engage in all the anxieties, all the intrigues, and infinitely more expense, than is ever called for here, to maintain their local interest. Even the very elections, although they are injuriously and almost oppressively multiplied here, do not so widely differ in the aggregate of inconvenience, as many suppose. Our national representatives are elected every two years. Parliaments in England are nominally for seven, but in fact the average does not exceed four or five. Our elections are completed in one day; theirs last fourteen, if either of the candidates choose it. The scenes of riot, the venality, and the profligacy of all kinds, which accompany these scenes, which

may be called the Saturnalia of England, would indeed be intolerable if they occurred oftener. But a fortnight at a time, which is the case with many of the most important elections, and the labour of canvassing, that occupies many previous weeks, will go far to balance the frequency of our appeals to the community. Besides the choice of members of Parliament, there are municipalities, directors of various important trusts, and great publick associations, the direction of which, excite the most ardent competition and struggling. We mention these facts, merely to shew, what is sometimes forgotten, that the contests of interest and ambition, exist in monarchies as well as in republicks, and that the English constitution does not prevent the necessity of continual exertion. Indeed the quiet which some men sigh after, is only to be found under absolute despotism. The same impatience at being roused to exertion for publick purposes, that is felt by men, who are only solicitous for good government in the hands of others, and for tranquillity in their own persons, is shewn in England, and much more extensively than here. There are individuals who laugh at all political freedom; and there was not long since, a book published by Mr. Leckie, a better Greek scholar than a politician, which held up the system of elections, as a very irksome farce; that it would be much wiser, while the question was in agitation, of giving a constitution like the English to the Island of Scily, to adopt the principles of the Sicilian constitution for the Island of Britain.

The English monarchy, then, does not supersede the necessity of political exertion, which is the strongest proof of the free principles incorporated in it. The next consideration is, the sum of happiness enjoyed under it. To estimate this, we must not look at the privileged classes only, but take into view every class of the nation. The higher classes in England are surpassed in dignity by none; the lower classes are equalled by few; the middle classes are not only more numerous, but in a higher and more fortunate relative standing, than in any other country in Europe. What is there to place against this large amount of prosperity? We put Ireland out of the question. That unfortunate country, seems condemned to constant misery and turbulence, through the operation of two causes. Her rents, exacted with grinding severity, are spent by non-resident landlords in other countries; and her degraded population,

nourished in ignorance by the exuberant bigotry of one religion, is condemned to furnish a luxurious support to the sinecure incumbents of another.

To confine the examination to England herself, we shall only mention the condition of two classes, the sailors, and the manufacturers and mechanicks. The first, may be estimated to contain one fifteenth of the adult male population. It will be difficult to find in any country, a population more utterly destitute of all personal rights than this class; the forced service of the navy, does not, to be sure, like the infernal code of the late French conscription, involve the parents of the individuals; yet so far as it regards the individuals themselves, it is more cruel, more odious, and more hopeless, than the conscription. It is more cruel, because it is exercised with more suddenness, more caprice, and more violence, and without even the appearance of any forms. It is more odious, because it is directed against only one class, and its execution is often influenced by individual tyranny and brutality. It is more hopeless, because there is no chance of promotion; because no length of service, is a guarantee against it, and there is no relief, but disability or death; and because there is no interval of time and space, that can dissolve the liability of allegiance. We are now speaking of a practice, which no man justifies; and which must fairly be supposed to be inevitable, since in England, a country which abounds with intrepid, enlightened philanthropists, no one now ventures to mention this monstrous system. The case of the manufacturers and mechanicks is not quite so bad; still they enjoy only a portion of the rights of their fellow subjects. The farmer and labourer may expatriate themselves in pursuit of that subsistence, which they cannot find at home. But the mechanick or manufacturer, who when employment fails, endeavours to escape from starvation, is liable to be arrested and treated as a felon. In fact, they are chained to their country, and one of the most oppressive principles of the feudal law, still bears upon them, long after the rest of the nation has been freed from its burthens.—This is a very invidious subject, we do not wish to pursue it, our object is only defensive, to shew to those who have been dazzled with the advantages of the British constitution, that it is not entirely without defects; and that a considerable portion are de-

prived of the dearest rights, to maintain the security and prosperity of the rest.

The constant exertion of the right of suffrage, and jealous investigation of all public measures required by a republican government, have always been urged as strong objections against its stability. The first gives such perpetual opportunities to demagogues, to mislead and corrupt the lower classes of citizens, while the higher are soon fatigued with the repeated and often ungrateful duties of both. For a very long period, however, there is less to fear from the corruption of the lower, than from the apathy of the higher classes.* As a security against this fatal effect, it is obvious, that these political duties are in reality a very slight burthen, except on a few who volunteer as sentinels. Habit contributes to render these duties more easy; and the example of all governments proves, that our choice is between a stagnating abasement, under the calm of despotism, or ennobling exertion on the tempestuous sea of liberty. Surely the equal participation of personal rights, and enjoyment of personal protection, constitutes a treasure that is worth contending to perpetuate. To every man of generous feelings, there is an elevated pride in knowing, that he forms part of a people, standing higher than any other in political rank; there is something exhilarating in the consciousness, that the advantages he may enjoy, are not purchased by any sacrifice of the rights of others.

In estimating the dangers of republican governments, we have always thought, that sufficient allowance has not been made for the power of habit, which is of vastly more importance, than any enactments or written constitutions. Had our war of Independence formed a revolution properly so called, had we been previously accustomed to the restraints of even limited monarchy, and the people been divided into distinct classes, invested with peculiar privileges; and then, in throwing off allegiance to a foreign nation, had they assumed, for the first time, the exercise of the democratick principle, such a revolution, notwithstanding our greater sobriety, might have terminated as wretchedly, as that of France. But no such revolution took place; the same cus-

*We use the word *higher* and *lower* classes in reference to education, profession and property; *classes* is a term of convenience, though in the strict sense of the word, it can hardly be applied in this country.

toms, the same principles, the same feelings governed the people; and the change was in fact little at variance with these; and of vastly less importance, than the passage of power from a Catholick to a Protestant family, was to the feelings and habits of the people of England. It is novelty which is dangerous in government; often more hurtful than established abuses. The force of habit was fatally shewn in France, nay even in England, where the democratick principle forms a considerable constituent feature in the government and the character of the people; yet they were incapable of supporting a republick, and were eager to return to their former customs. It is difficult to find an individual who can pass from a monarchy to a republick, or vice versa, and have his new duties sit easy and graceful upon him. It is utterly impossible for a nation to undergo the first of these changes; and for a republick to subside permanently into a monarchy, can only happen by the slowest operation of circumstances, foreign subjugation excepted; and never till its character and institutions have so far deteriorated, that the revolution will be rather a process of decay, than an establishment of increasing strength.

Next to this influence of habit, may be ranked the state of property, and the character of our population. The former is almost equally divided; the nature of our laws must keep it so; and the latter, hardly contains any portion of mere populace. Every man is, or may be a holder of real estate; he may possess a portion of the territory in fee simple, a privilege which is even denied to great wealth in some countries in Europe, and can only be enjoyed by that, in any. The majority of the voters, then, are landholders, such men may be deluded for a time, but instinct, if not reason, will bring them right at last.

Another principle, which forms the glory of political science, and the greatest improvement of the moderns over the ancients, the principle of representation, is here carried into all the ramifications of government. Every thing is delegated; and wherever the principle of delegation obtains, provided the practice is familiar to those who exercise it, the particular modification is of secondary importance. The American people never act like the populace of Rome and Athens, immediately from themselves, except they are in a state of insurrection; they delegate others for every operation. Their delegates may not always be wise ones;

they may mistake hollow pretensions for sound principles, and plausible professions for honest intentions; nations, like individual men and women, must pay for the pleasure of being flattered and deceived, either with their pockets or their persons, and be fortunate if they escape both. But a frequent resumption of power, will sooner or later enable them to retrieve their mistake.

We think the history of the country, has hitherto proved this to be the case in many instances. Even where this is delayed, the very circumstance of being in power, the irresistible operation of government is, to make those who administer it, support its principles, and strengthen its foundations. This very operation is now before our eyes. When the government first went into action, all the measures of administration were to be arranged; these, with few exceptions, discovered so much wisdom, as well as, moderation, as proved their authors to have possessed an equal share of sagacity and virtue. When a series of political intrigues carried the government into other hands, we then experienced a most important crisis. Innovation was borne on the shoulders of popular delusion into every department, and it is possible at this early period, if the prime mover had been younger, and able to have kept the reins a few years longer, and no foreign pressure had intervened to force us together; then, indeed, we might have fallen back into our original condition; all the hoops that bound us would have been loosened, and we should have fallen like a *shook* cask, into the anarchy from which we had been raised, a collection of poor, divided, unprotected States. But his successors partly from sounder views, partly from external circumstances, have abandoned the fatal absurdities which brought them into power, and resumed the solid, original principles of the government. The nation seems disposed, in many respects, to go with them, and a very few years must so fix all the establishments, that the administration will become, with slight exceptions, an affair of routine. The contest will then be for place, rather than principle, and whenever this is the case, the result is really of less consequence, than in the warmth of party feeling we are sometimes apt to imagine.

Among the numerous trite and false maxims which have been currently received, and confidently retailed on the subject of popular forms of government, the one which

makes the extent of the country, an argument against the existence of such forms, is the most conspicuous. Nothing can be more directly opposed to truth. The almost infinite complication of machinery in the government of a free country, which constitutes the perfection of modern political science, the wide extent over which this system is extended; are the surest guarantees of its solidity. The Union composed of separate States, unembarrassed by local details of police and administration, has its attention only occupied by the movements of Foreign relations, and some few of the more important bearings of internal economy. The States, again subdivided into counties, into towns, into parishes, the scale of power and independence gradually diminishing, till a minute and perfect organization is the result; furnishes by all this gradation of corporate capacities, a most admirable mode of obtaining a true knowledge of publick sentiment; the same system presents an almost insurmountable obstacle to its subversion, by the difficulty of corrupting so many different bodies, or combining them to act in concert against it. There may be a partial derangement, and yet the motion of the whole not be seriously impeded. The scheme may be compared to certain collections of machinery; popular will, is the great moving power which keeps the whole in motion; and if a portion gets heated or deranged, it may be detached from the rest for temporary repairs, without arresting the movement of the whole. On this subject let us make two quotations, from one of the wisest political treatises now possessed by the world. 'To this catalogue of circumstances, that tend to the melioration of popular systems of civil government, I shall venture, however novel it may appear to some, to adduce one more on a principle which has been made the foundation of an objection to the new constitution; I mean the *enlargement of the orbit*, within which such systems are to revolve, either in respect to the dimensions of a single state, or to the consolidation of several smaller states into one great confederacy.' Federalist, vol. 2, p. 55.

'It is no less certain than it is important, notwithstanding the contrary opinions which have been entertained, that the larger the society, provided it be within a practicable sphere, the more duly capable it will be of self-government. And happily for the republican cause, the practicable sphere

may be carried to a very great extent, by a judicious modification and mixture of the federal principle.' Idem. vol. 3, p. 35.

There was one source of danger to our republican institutions, which every day must diminish. The glare, "the pomp and circumstance" of royalty, might easily dazzle the citizens of a youthful republick, hardly known in the world, and only distinguished for their happy state of peace and laborious enterprise. When they had shewn themselves capable of other energies, greater confidence in themselves, and greater respect from others, naturally followed. The manly, dignified pride of republican freedom, must inevitably obtain at last the highest station in the opinion of the world; as the gaudy luxury of Persia was abashed at Roman simplicity, so every day, which adds to our growth and our fame, will diminish the comparative glitter of royalty, and attach the highest respect to the highest state of freedom. Examine two rival portraits.—Observe the exalted sense of honour, which makes the Peer of a monarchy devote his life for his sovereign, regarding that sovereign as the personification of the majesty of his country, profoundly submissive to him, courteous to his equals, gentle to his inferiours, "feeling dishonour like a wound," and proud of his decorations, as they are the reward of his services and the gift of his king.—Consider the patriot of a republick, who feels all outward trappings of distinction to be only irksome foppery, who serves his country for no other reward but the fame of serving her; who *primus inter pares*, can reflect with generous complacency, that he has no superiours, nor inferiours, except to his personal merit and services: who engages in publick life with affability, but without subserviency, who looks without disdain, for truer appreciation, than that of temporary popularity; who can smile in retirement at the waywardness of his fellow-citizens who may prefer a sorry demagogue to himself, ready when danger approaches, to resume the place which only courage and talent can fill.* If such characters are rare, we believe at least the latter are as numerous as the former, and the superiority between them cannot be doubtful.

* A celebrated writer has said, *Des qu'il y a du danger, tout se range, le courage prends sa place.*

It would take a volume to discuss all the points of this subject: and after all our wishes and belief, there is something excessively discouraging on the opposite side. For in theory, the gradual degradation and ultimate subversion of a democratick republick from intrinsick causes, seems so nearly inevitable, that it may almost be reduced to the form of a diagram, and demonstrated with all the neatness of mathematical certainty. We are overwhelmed too by the reputation of those able men, whose pure hearts and ardent minds, impressed and alarmed with this conviction, have laboured to avert the catastrophe, by arguments, by warning, by prophecy: true Laocoons these! whose only reward, was to have their popularity strangled by the foul serpents of deception and calumny.

The friends of order, of quiet, of stability and national honour, may be often "nailed to the north wall of opposition;" but as this class must possess the largest portion of talents and wealth, the bulk of their fellow citizens who possess any share of intelligence or property, and a large majority are now in this situation, will never be very far from them; and abuses cannot long remain enormous without correction.

To young men of generous minds, who feel that admiration for liberty and republican institutions, which a perusal of the immortal works of antiquity, can hardly fail of creating, we would recommend the study of the Federalist; they will there find the principles of freedom, and the constitution of their country, delineated and defended with the utmost ability and perspicuity. Legitimate opposition forms the grand preservative of a free government; but its continuity is often wearisome and irksome, and yet it must be continued, or the power of rallying on emergency, abandoned. In the political drama, the striking scenes and grandest movements earnestly engage attention; while the mere *recitative* of opposition is lifeless and fatiguing; the work we have mentioned may be safely recurred to, as a salutary cordial to raise the spirits and confirm attention. To conclude, we may be vexed with abuses, we may be mortified at seeing low minds in places of eminence, we may be amused at having some *Mr. Tugalls* to tell us, who shall be our Chief Magistrate—Yet so long as we shall have able and pure men, who by their writings and speeches, will enlighten, guide, and animate publick opinion—we shall "never despair of the republick."

A Visit to Paris in 1814; *being a review of the moral, political, intellectual and social condition of the French Capital. By John Scott. Philadelphia, republished by Edward Parker.* 12*mo. pp.* 310.

Though France is crowded in every part of it with English travellers and English families, who make it their residence for years together, she seems destined not to please the travel-writers of that nation. Before the revolution, they complained, that their Marquesses wore red-heeled, and their peasants wooden, shoes; that the ladies wore rouge, and the gentlemen embroidery; that the people were effeminate, enslaved and overrun with priests and superstitious practices: now they complain, that they are rude and ferocious, destitute of religion, turbulent and unmanageable. There may be some truth in all these assertions, but there is also much exaggeration. This book was written to be popular in England, and of course direct flattery of his own country and countrymen, is often brought in to contrast more strongly with the vices of Frenchmen and France. This is perfectly natural from the habits of an English editor of a newspaper, but it is not the most desirable line of conduct for a traveller.

It is, perhaps, unfortunate for Mr. Scott, that we have been so recently engaged with the travels of a Frenchman in England; the comparison, in respect to candour, absence of prejudice, and what is still more remarkable, style and purity of writing, is vastly against him. This work is written in the most vicious taste, and is a specimen of a large proportion of modern English productions, which threaten the entire corruption of the language, and to render its classick writers, at no distant period, obsolete. Barbarous words are coined, or raked from ancient kennels, where they had been buried in fortunate oblivion. Not only words, but manner also, is bad. There is an attempt, by laborious research of epithet, to crowd a sentence with meaning. Their sentences are like their own stage coaches, which originally destined to carry four *insides*, are loaded with *outsides* and baggage to an inconvenient and dangerous extent; the result therefore is, that instead of carrying more meaning, the

sense is completely overturned, and the whole involved in confusion. Let us however do justice to the author, though his style is faulty, and his prejudices, from habit as a party writer, of seeing defects only on one side, obvious; yet he is often a sagacious observer, he appears to judge from his own impressions, and his descriptions are often just and animated.

We must here make a few general remarks, on the violent manner in which the state of social life in France, is represented by this and other writers, as being in the lowest state of degradation. Possibly, in her altered condition, some feeling of pity may excite us on this point. When France was powerful, arrogant, and mischievous, we would have urged all mankind to resist and combat her; but, when she is overthrown, broken and degraded, our attacks should cease. We would borrow a maxim from the English gladiators, and refrain from a blow, when the opponent was down. If *debellare superbos* was the proper motto in one case, *parcere subjectis* should operate in the other.

In pursuing this declamation against French society, it should be recollected, that Paris, which principally furnishes the theme, is the grand resort of all the debauched voluptuaries of Europe. There they live in a round of decent dissipation and polished voluptuousness; mixing only in circles equally seducing and dangerous, without morality, but without grossness. We have known strangers from different countries, who have resided in Paris for years, without any intercourse with domestick life, or any visit in any private house, except perhaps an occasional dinner at their Banker's, or their Ambassadour's. These persons having encountered no chastity thamselves, are very apt to be incredulous about its existence; and go away representing France to be very charming and very immoral, having constantly found it to be both.

This, however, it will be admitted, has little to do with the great mass of society. The truth is, that in France, as in all other countries, it is extremely difficult for a stranger to get initiated into the best private society; a difficulty which is commonly increased, in proportion to the size of the capital, where it exists. To penetrate into this society is not more easy in Paris, than it is in London. There must generally be some striking circumstances to favour it. Very brilliant powers of conversation, great accomplish-

ments in musick, high rank, great fame, or even notoriety, may be passports to certain assemblies in fashionable life; but even then, the society is neither intimate nor connected. There was one winter in London, when any dark looking man, unable to speak English, and smelling of cigars, might have passed, as a Spanish Patriot, into the most fashionable routs. During another, any fierce, whiskered countenance, in a hussar uniform, with an *unspeakable* name, was welcomed into the same circles. In Paris, Persian and Turkish Ministers and their suite, with long beards and turbaned heads, and their heavy composure of face, were always favourites in society, though they could not speak a word of the language; even we, simple, plain republicans had our day, and there was a time, when the most polished coterie of Paris, was imperfect, without the acquaintance of Dr. Franklin, and for many years after him, his countrymen were received in the most flattering manner. In ordinary cases, there must be considerable merit, good recommendations, good luck, dignified patience, and perseverance without impertinence, to fairly circulate in the best society. A partial admission may be often obtained, and yet to the disappointment of the individual, he will get but one step forward. A friend of ours, who had lived long in Paris, once remarked, that society in that city was a magick circle, you continually fancied you were within it, and as regularly found yourself on the outside.

That there is much immorality in France, that the foundations of society are at some points sapped, cannot, unfortunately, be denied; a knowledge of human character, and of the events that have taken place in that country, would shew this must be the case, even to those who had never visited it. But the coarse, indiscriminate denunciation of its social state, which is so very common, is unreasonable and untrue. If France is inferiour to some, she is greatly superiour to many others, and there are several capitals in Europe, where there is more general degradation, more odious and infamous profligacy than in Paris.

We shall intersperse our copious extracts with a few remarks.

'A large crucifix on the pier of Dieppe, seen from the 'deck of the packet, first caused me to *feel* that I was about 'to land on foreign ground, and mingle with manners, and

'looks, and language, to which I had been unaccustomed. 'This feeling, when experienced for the first time, is a strong 'and touching one. I am not ashamed to confess, that I 'looked earnestly at the hills which rose before me, to dis- 'cover something *French* about them; they seemed, howev- 'er, to be round and green, very much like those I had left 'behind. My eye earnestly sought out the clusters of farm- 'houses; they indicated life and intelligence, that formed part 'of a different system of sentiments, manners and expres- 'sions, from that to which I belonged. The sensation that 'is caused by this conviction is not easily described;—you 'seem to be going, as it were, beyond yourself,—and you 'are surprised to find that your experience does not furnish 'you with a single anticipation of any of the appearances that 'are about to present themselves. This is a novelty, indeed, 'after a certain age, and revives again, in the exhausted and 'torpid breast, that activity of observation, quickness of feel- 'ing, and fruitfulness of idea, that give to the moments of 'childhood as much of the essence of enjoyment as is con- 'tained in years of after-life. While a traveller keeps within 'his own country, he expects that, with something new, he 'will meet with more that is common; he knows how he 'will be received at the inns; he is conversant with the as- 'pect of the towns: and the very features of the earth regard 'him, as he passes, with an air of old acquaintanceship. But 'when, for the first time, he quits his own country, he is pre- 'pared for nothing; every thing comes upon him with the 'force of a first impression; and nothing startles him more 'than the numerous resemblances to those objects and hab- 'its with which he is familiar. These he least expects to 'encounter, and at these, therefore, he is most surprised. 'The reported discovery of *roads* in the moon, excited 'more popular admiration than the account of any monstrous 'prodigy on its surface would have done.

'As the packet entered within the pier, the interest be- 'came stronger, for we were advancing within crowds of men 'and women, and into the bosom of the strange place. We 'could already hear the youngest children, and the most mis- 'erable of the poor, talking a language which we had been 'accustomed to consider as the proof of a liberal education. 'It was Sunday, and the beach and quay were thronged with 'persons waiting to see us land. "For the love of Heaven," 'cried an English admiral's lady, "look at that creature in

'the red petticoat!" She was a fishwoman, and certainly 'presented a figure very grotesque to an English eye. The 'grey woven jackets of these women are tight around the 'waist; the expansion where the petticoat begins is im- 'mense, but the petticoat itself is short. Both their hands 'are usually in their pockets; they walk along with a care- 'less air, stooping forward their bodies; their physiognomies 'are sharp, but do not indicate rudeness; and from their ears, 'huge golden drops and rings are suspended, which are be- 'queathed from mother to daughter with pride, and preserv- 'ed in the family with care. Let me do them the justice 'to praise their cleanliness; their dress is remarkably com- 'plete and trim;—their raised caps, with long loose flaps 'hanging over their shoulders, are white as snow; and I 'had an opportunity of confirming this observation in other 'towns of the coast, and on other days of the week besides 'Sunday.

'We could also discern some ladies on the pier, and their 'flowing shawls, high bonnets, and tricksome gait, bid our 'young gentlemen prepare their compliments in a new lan- 'guage and in a new style. I had been told not to expect 'much female beauty in France; but the first face I could 'distinctly perceive, was that of a very beautiful French 'girl, who leaned, with an air of triumphant weakness, on 'the arm of her beau, a fierce fellow, with a cocked hat, and 'cockade, while she regarded us with a look which cannot 'be described otherwise than by saying it conveyed, with 'a marked intention, the quintessence of feminine expres- 'sion. Her companions (for she was surrounded by several 'of her own sex) were excited into smiles by the view of 'our party, whose appearance sea-sickness, and a night 'spent on board the packet, had rendered very squalid; 'and, as the vessel advanced, they advanced also, to be 'close to the landing of so singular a set. Each had her pro- 'tector, by whose side she tripped with a conscious short- 'ness of step, a soliciting bend of her form, balanced by a 'lively confidence in her eyes and smiles.

'But the most impressive feature of the crowd before us, 'and that which most struck us with a sense of novelty and 'of interest, was its military aspect. Almost every man had 'some indication of the military profession about his person, 'sufficient to denote that he had been engaged in war; at 'the same time, there was a self-willed variety in the dress

'of each, which had a very unpleasant effect, inasmuch as 'it prevented us from recognizing that *stamped assurance* '*of legitimacy as an armed force*, which is impressed on 'the aspect of British troops. We could scarcely imagine, 'that the dark visaged beings, some in long, loose great 'coats, some in jackets, some in cocked hats, some in round 'ones, some in caps, who darted at us keen looks of a very 'over-clouded cast, had ever belonged to regiments, steady, 'controlled, and lawful ;—they seemed, rather, the frag- 'ments of broken-up gangs, brave, dextrous, and fierce, 'but unprincipled, and unrestrained. Much of this irregu- 'larity and angriness of appearance, was doubtless occasion- 'ed by the great disbandment of the army that had just tak- 'en place. The disbanded had no call to observe the nice- 'ties of military discipline, although they still retained such 'parts of their military uniform as they found convenient. 'They had not then either pursuits to occupy their time, 'or even prospects to keep up their hopes ; they still loung- 'ed about in idleness, although their pay had been stopped ; 'and disappointment and necessity threw into their faces an 'expression deeper than that of irritation,—approaching, in 'fact, to the indications of indiscriminate and inveterate 'hatred. They carried about with them in their air, the 'branded characteristicks of forlorn men, whose interests 'and habits opposed them to the peace of mankind ;—men 'who would cry with the desperate Constance,

"War! war! no peace! peace is to me a war!"

KING JOHN.

'When a Margate hoy evacuates her cargo, the crowd on 'the pier is usually considerable, but how different in its 'general aspect from that which now presented itself! A 'the English watering-place, the arriving passengers find 'collected to receive them, snug mercantile physiognomies, 'countenances indicating a settled and comfortable mode of 'living, unmarked by irritation or alarm,—and a kind of lazy 'independence of manner, which by those who do not pos- 'sess a good deal of knowledge of the nicer traits of charac- 'ter, is likely to be taken for insolence. In the French 'crowd, on the contrary, vivacity is every where appa- 'rent:—the soldiers are vivaciously surly ; the ladies viva- 'ciously charming ; the attendant-porters and masters of

'hotels vivaciously solicitous; the common people vivaciously observant and assiduous. "Permit me to have 'the honour to carry little *My Lord* up the ladder," said a 'fellow with a nightcap on his head, and a ragged jacket on 'his back, at the same time snatching up a little boy who 'stood timidly in his mother's hand on the deck. He, and 'three others, followed the party to the hotel, and stood 'silently in the room. An English gentleman, anxious to 'make his essay, and thinking that on these persons he 'might safely try his skill, addressed them in terms of obsequiousness, which he intended to rival the French in 'their own country. "To what were he and his friends indebted for the favour of the present visit?" The spokesman of the set replied, that Messieurs, pointing to the three 'behind, and himself, had been so fortunate as to assist the 'landing of the bountiful English, and they craved the honour of being remembered for their services. "But why," 'rejoined the Englishman, "follow us all the way here; 'why not demand your recompense at the vessel?"—It 'would have been most impolite in poor people like us to 'have forced ourselves on your notice in the street," was 'the cunning answer, which could only be handsomely rewarded by a donation of several francs.

'We entered the hotel with our eyes springing out before our steps, on the alert to detect curiosities. The 'host led the way, talking such English, that we were obliged to beg he would be intelligible to Englishmen by speaking French. A hasty glance, as we passed the kitchen, 'gave us a glimpse of a man-cook, who gratified us excessively, being exactly what Hogarth has represented, as a 'specimen of the tribe, in the famous picture of the Gates 'of Calais:—indications of soups and stews were abundant; 'and the female servants, in "fancifully wild costume," 'took their stations within view, their faces all sparkling 'and *up*, as we say of spruce beer.

'The room into which we were shewn, gave strong evidence that we were not in England It would have been 'fine and elegant, if it had not been out of repair, and dirty. 'Glasses of a size which we never see in our country, but 'in the houses of persons of fortune, hung on the cheerless 'white walls, in frames, the gilding of which was mostly worn 'off. A magnificent marble chimney-piece, and a superb 'hearth of the same, were by no means in harmony with

'a naked brick-floor. Wash-hand basins stood on tables 'that had been superb in gold, and were still curious in 'carving. After our voyage, several operations conducive 'to personal comfort were necessary; these, such as wash-'ing, shaving, combing, &c. were all to be performed, by 'all the party, in the room devoted to breakfast. But the 'breakfast afterwards was good, the host and the waiters 'were civil; and their guests, in the heartiness and fresh-'ness of their feelings, found every thing, however strange 'and even incommodious, a source of amusement and pleas-'ure.'

The description here of the feelings on first seeing a strange country, is lively and natural. When he comes to the portrait of the military aspect of the crowd, which had nothing in it of "that *stamped assurance of legitimacy as an armed force*, which is impressed on the aspect of British troops;" the crude absurdity both in style and reasoning of the newspaper editor, appears. Suppose a Frenchman had been at Portmouth or Chatham when three or four ships were paid off, and the officers and crews discharged without much prospect of employment, to seek their fortune in their undress costume; he would have been very ridiculous if he had, in disliking their looks, began to talk about the *stamped assurance of legitimacy*, in the Imperial guard.

The remarks on the uninhabited, and ruinous, decayed mansions that he met with on the road, would naturally strike an Englishman, as such an appearance in the country in England is extremely uncommon. This is one of the prominent marks of the revolution.

'The general aspect of the country between the coast 'and the capital of France, especially that part of it nearest 'the former, gives the idea of a kingdom that has suffered; 'that has been reduced from what it was to what it is. It 'is apparent that something has happened to it, which has 'not only stopped improvement, but actually removed its 'condition downwards. Many of the Chateaus are in 'ruins; others are inhabited by the poor, whose children 'were to be seen playing in roofless and windowless sum-'mer-houses, standing in desolate gardens, which give an 'affecting token that calamity has befallen the original pos-

'sessors. There is something infinitely more melancholy 'in the appearance of that land, the capacities of which are 'superiour to the state of its inhabitants, than of that where 'the people are evidently cramped and depressed by the 'deficiencies of nature, and in the general absence of means. 'It is more pitiable to see the human body falling away 'from its coverings, than incommoded by overgrowing 'them. France, in that part of it through which I travelled, 'is full of signs that disorganization and destruction have 'been at work. Neglected avenues, unemployed out-'houses, unappropriated means of various kinds, all tend to 'shew that the population has been reduced in circum-'stances as well as in numbers. Large houses by the road 'side are almost deserted; and their few occupiers are of 'so mean and miserable a description, that it is evident 'they must have been thrown into their present places by 'some violence, that has removed the natural owners from 'their proper spheres, and filled their situations with those 'who are incompetent to discharge their functions towards 'society. The consequence is, a general appearance of 'impoverishment and unsuitableness. To judge from such 'hasty observation, as passing along the roads and through 'the towns would permit, I should certainly say that men 'were few in this part of the country of France; but al-'though the fact is probable in itself, and affirmed on better 'authority than I can offer in its support, I do not wish to 'press my testimony as adding any thing to the evidence.

'It is affirmed, indeed, and by those who may be deemed 'good authorities, that the agricultural condition of France 'is much improved since the Revolution;—in no less a 'ratio, it is said, than one-fifth. The fact is certainly not 'improbable, nor at all inconsistent with what has been 'stated. In the first place, agricultural science has made a 'considerable progress in Europe generally within that 'period, and this must have effected a considerable change 'for the better in agricultural practice in France, as well 'as elsewhere, had the old system continued: in the second, 'it is not to be doubted that the breaking up of the large 'estates, consequent on the destruction of the nobility, 'and the throwing of the land of France, in smaller distri-'butions, into the hands of persons of active habits, interest-'ed to render it as profitable as possible, would be followed 'by an improvement of cultivation. The question is,

'whether this increased production of the earth, which cer-
'tainly is in itself calculated to be a source of increased
'national prosperity and individual happiness, has in reality
'been so to this kingdom? It does not follow as a matter of
'course, that the growth of grain, &c. must render a people
'affluent in their general condition; for on this principle the
'Indians, whose country produces gold and precious stones,
'should be esteemed wealthier than the merchants of
'Leadenhall-street. It does appear to me that, as yet,
'France has not reaped much benefit from the alteration:
'there seem to have been counteracting causes hitherto at
'work, thwarting the best tendencies of what has resulted
'from her political changes,—but these changes have cer-
'tainly laid the foundation for much future good, and under
'a wise superintendance it cannot be long of appearing.

'I ought to mention, that these observations chiefly apply
'to the country between Dieppe and Rouen; less of the
'character in question is noticeable between Rouen and
'Paris,—that is to say, it is less marked, but the general
'cast of feature is the same. Yet, although the condition
'of the people seemed low, I had soon occasion to observe,
'that their spirits and manners are of a lighter, and, accord-
'ing to first appearances, of a more cordial quality than
'those of England. I had not travelled far before I
'was presented with the sight of one of those rustick
'dances, which almost inseparably connect themselves with
'our pleasantest ideas of continental scenery, inasmuch as
'they are a very favourite topick of description in the most
'graceful fables, and most interesting narratives, that have
'touched on continental customs. Perhaps the reality did
'not appear quite so swimmingly elegant, and elasticly
'joyous, as the fancy of the thing had been. In Sterne's
'account of the dancing grace after supper, the young men,
'if I recollect rightly, changed their sabots, or wooden
'shoes, for others more neat in their look, and more adapted
'to lively motion;—but on the road to Rouen they retained
'them. These gave a heavy prancing air to the steps of
'the lads; nor were the girls exactly the "creatures of the
'element;" which in imagination trip on velvet verdure,
'with a gayety that has nothing of the coarseness of mirth,
'and a tenderness that is purified from the grossness of
'sense. It was evident enough, that the gallantry of these
'rural dancers was not a whit more sentimental, than we find

'it in the inn-yards of our great North-road, when the passing coachmen pay their devoirs to the expectant chambermaids. Nevertheless the village dance of France, is a very agreeable addition to the other rural objects, that salute the travelling stranger. The old folks sitting with an air of ruminating complacency by the side of the merry whirl, give a family look to the group; and the youthful couples, all animation, notwithstanding the utter absence of eatables and drinkables—(which are absolutely necessary to even tolerable good humour when people meet in England)—and all activity, notwithstanding the heaviness of their wooden shoes, afford a very striking specimen of a nation, where the current of existence glides lightly on,—taking a brisker turn from its impediments, catching sparkles from its shallowness, and throwing a dazzling effect around its deepest falls, at the bottom of which it collects again to rush onward in an undiminished, and even more ardent stream. Personal deprivations, of most kinds, are, probably, more numerous in France than in England; but it is certain that sorrow and suffering do not present themselves so frequently to casual observation in the former country as in the latter. The aggravations of a harsh spirit are more common here than there: the necessitous with us are perpetually quarrelling and tormenting among themselves. The husband spends his pittance in getting drunk, and then tumbles home to beat his wretched, and not very resigned wife and children: cries and altercation are always heard near the dwellings of our miserables; but the French poor are of a different temperament. Their minds do not swell and chafe under the influence of severe circumstances. This may be, and in my opinion is, because they want depth; the storm that throws the Atlantick into a terrible commotion, only causes a few ripples on the surface of a garden pond; the mere pleasure-boat, of course, rides most safely and pleasantly on the latter,—while the ocean, with all its dangers and deformities, is the sphere for high enterprize, and affords the means for effecting the noblest purposes.

'As it grew dark we passed through some small towns, in each of which we hurried by several lighted-up-houses of publick reception, where crowds of both sexes were assembled, apparently all courteousness and decorum,—regaling with such weak beverages as a very small beer,

'and coffee,—and gratifying the jiggish propensities of their 'minds by the sound of fiddles. The labouring English-'man has but little disposition to regale himself in the com-'pany of women, and is still less inclined to shew to his 'female equals those forms of deference and gallant atten-'tions, which are parts of the established system of genteel 'society. It would seem as if he spurned courtesy from 'him, in a bitter sense of its inapplicability to the necessary 'coarseness of his condition. The quick feeling of what 'is ridiculous and unsuitable, which distinguishes our peo-'ple, has a tendency to make them deride all forms that are 'strongly contrasted to realities, and to throw away with 'a desperate disdain, all that finery of manner that is not 'of a-piece with their circumstances.'

The following sketch of a *full blood* cockney on a week's visit to Paris, is drawn with humour and spirit. There were thousands of both sexes equally ignorant, who went over on a similar trip, and exasperated the hatred of the French, already humiliated by disgrace, with their vulgarity, their insolence and rudeness. In the vexatious exclamation of the French officer against the tranquillity of Europe, *I shall be always a captain*, we have an expression of French vivacity, it is true, but of sentiment, that might have been heard without crossing the Alps, the Rhine, or the Channel. Mr. Scott might have asked the subalterns of the six hundred generals in the English army, of the myriads of Captains and Lieutenants in the British navy, and the vast majority of them would have sighed at the tranquillity of Europe. But the English have been so much in the habit of attributing all the ambition, all the turbulence, all the love of war to their enemies; that they never think of any similar passions among themselves. It is the curse of Europe, that the military spirit, and the military interest is wholly predominant in every country but England; and it is only mitigated there, by the resources which their innumerable colonies and their commerce afford them, to employ the dissatisfied of the disbanded professions.

'The chances of travelling threw amongst our party 'a young English shopkeeper, who had taken it into his 'head to pay a visit to Paris of one week's duration. He 'must, he said, be back to business by Monday, for the

'bustling time was coming on. He knew not one word of 'the French language, nor a single individual in the French 'capital: his days and nights had been devoted, not to 'Belles-Lettres, but to the ledger; yet he was determined 'to see for himself what was fine in the Louvre. This was 'the great object of his expedition, and it was disappoint-'ed,—for the Louvre was shut against the public when he 'arrived, and he did not stay long enough to enable us to 'fulfil our promise of procuring him a permission to be ad-'mitted. He was an excellent national specimen, of faults 'as well as of good qualities,—and furnished some amusing 'contrasts on the road; so that his introduction here will 'probably be held very excusable. Never were instinctive 'curiosity, personal confidence, and regardless intrepidity, 'more conspicuous than in the travels of this personage. 'He knew but one side of every question, and he was as 'positive as if he had spent his life in impartial examina-'tion; he had provided for nothing, but he was quite sure 'of finding himself comfortable in every thing. He had 'not procured a passport, for he was certain passports were 'all nonsense,—they would never dare to stop an English-'man; one could travel all over England without a pass-'port. He had no letter of credit, or French money of 'any kind; but he had plenty of bank-notes, and he would 'like to see a Frenchman refuse a Bank of England note! 'Of course he was exposed to many difficulties, which, had 'he been alone, he would have found very serious; but he 'treated them all with the utmost carelessness, and attri-'buted them to the awkwardness, and ignorance of the peo-'ple amongst whom he had come.

'The first occurrence that a little shook his notion, that 'an Englishman might stride like a superiour being over 'France, just as he pleased, attending to none of its cus-'toms or rules, and treated with respectful submission by 'its inhabitants,—was the entrance of a young French dra-'goon officer, of a fine commanding figure, and authoritative 'expression of face, into the Diligence. Our shopkeeper 'saluted him with just such a look of familiar examination, 'as that with which Sir Joseph Bankes would regard an in-'habitant of a South Sea island on his first visit to Soho 'square: but there was a checking haughtiness in the re-'turned glances, that soon had its influence on the spirits 'and behaviour of our countryman. The soldier, it was

'easy to see, had no feeling of partiality towards the foreigners he had accidentally joined: and he soon explained the state of his mind in this respect, by pulling out of his pocket a snuff-box, on the top of which there was a beautiful portrait of Napoleon in enamel. He carried his devotion so far, as to bear about his person another portrait of the same individual suspended by a black ribbon, worn round his neck. He was evidently a gentleman, and was the first we had seen in France who bore that assurance in his external appearance: this circumstance I believe repressed our companion, far more than the fierce sword and fiercer looks of the stranger. Besides, all that our traveller had read in his country's newspapers of that monster Buonaparte, rushed into his mind, and to have before his eyes, and actually touching his knees, a man who wore the pictures of such a wretch, who clearly regretted his downfall, and who had most probably taken a part in his dreadful deeds, quite bewildered the comprehension, and overpowered the senses of the Englishman. He probably would not have felt more alarmed or horror-struck if Doctor Faustus, immediately after making over his soul to the Devil, had sat down within six inches of him; or if one of those human beings who float down the Ganges, devouring corpses, had come reeking from such a repast to breathe in his face.

'The officer resisted conversation with more firmness than is usual in France: it generally happens there that sulkiness soon gives way to loquacity, but our military companion cut off the approaches to his sentiments, and shut himself up in almost total incommunicativeness. Once only he made an observation which bore on the state of publick affairs;—and it was perfectly explanatory of the whole system of his thinking—its causes as well as its condition. Something was said to convey a civil compliment to France, in an expression of satisfaction that she was now open to the visits of Englishmen, and a hope was added, that this pleasant intercourse might last, and the tranquillity of Europe remain uninterrupted.—The remark was not addressed to the officer, but he replied to it, evidently under a strong impulse. "Very good, Gentlemen,—this tranquillity of Europe is a fine thing,—but will it not keep me "*always a Captain?*" *Toujours Capitaine*, was the emphatic conclusion of this sudden burst from taciturnity.

'He did not long continue with us, and the traveller of a 'week looked after him as he descended the steps of the ve- 'hicle, as a man looks after the smoke of a piece of artillery, 'that has suddenly gone off near him, and startled him more 'through the influence of surprise than of fear. Our coun- 'tryman withdrew his looks slowly from the disappearing 'object of his astonishment, and then fixed his eyes on 'ours, as if to say—"*Well this is something, however!*" 'To those of us who had spoken to the Frenchman, he ad- 'dressed himself with that sort of admiring curiosity for in- 'formation, which the crowd, who visit a menagerie of wild 'beasts, shew towards the man who dare put his hand into 'the lion's mouth, and venture within reach of the tiger's 'paw, "Did he really, then, like Buonaparte?"—"Had he 'been at Moscow?"—"Was he likely to rebel against 'Louis the Eighteenth?"

'But this serious surprise over, there was something in- 'discribably droll in the easy scorn, with which the person 'in question encountered all the novelties that the roads of 'France presented,—except indeed the novelties of the ta- 'ble, against which he seriously protested, and for some 'time maintained a very determined resistance, repulsing 'from him fricaseed pullets and stewed veal, with a haughty 'disdain, until he was subdued by hunger, as many other 'independent spirits have been before him. From the cups, 'too, in which coffee was served up, he shrunk a little at 'first, in as much as they struck him as being very like 'those that hold pomatum in England: but, with all these 'prejudices, there was an apparent determination about him 'to see and think for himself, which denoted an active and 'not a weak mind: it seemed, from his manner, as if he 'felt it due to his country, while he was absent from her, to 'laugh at, or abuse every thing that differed from her cus- 'toms, but that he would after his return, ponder upon 'what he had seen in a more impartial spirit than that in 'which he had observed.'

The following extracts contain some very just remarks on the appearance of the streets and squares of Paris.

'We have an English comedy—(not a very good one)— 'in which a worthy London citizen who has been led into 'Wales, professes the utmost astonishment that any one can

'see beauty in black and rough-looking hills, with torrents 'impeded by stones, and rushing between irregular banks, 'falling down their sides. He appeals to the smooth and 'level mall, and the carefully preserved canal of St. James's 'Park, which he says are called fine by good judges, to 'prove that their immediate opposites must be deformities. 'My readers, therefore, who are checking this account of 'Paris by their own notions, formed on the spot of observa- 'tion, must not even be surprised, far less angry, if they 'find that I totally dissent from the statements they have 'been giving to their friends. I met with many English 'there, who could see nothing but that the streets were 'narrow and dirty, and that the fronts of the houses wanted 'white-washing, their stairs scouring, and their doors scrap- 'ing and scrubbing. Agreeing with all this, and granting the 'comfort and respectability accruing from these observan- 'ces, I must nevertheless pronounce Paris to be a most mag- 'nificent place. The views which it presents are of the 'most touching and grand kind; its appearances are inter- 'esting beyond any thing I could before have fancied. 'The chief reason of this is, that *character* is indicated by 'almost every surface. A system of things, calculated, 'with reference to the whole, to produce the greatest ag- 'gregate amount of convenience and completeness of every 'kind, tames down and restrains the manifestations of indi- 'vidual peculiarities. This prevails much more in England 'than in France,—and more in London than in Paris. The 'consequence is, that, in the English capital, your ideas 'and feelings are less frequently and forcibly excited than 'in the French.

'The first sally forth of a stranger in Paris, will probably 'bring him almost immediately on the Boulevarde, and here 'he will be forcibly struck by a mass of novelty. The 'Boulevarde goes round Paris, and was originally its boun- 'dary, but the extension of the city has, in many places, 'rendered it central, and it is so in the most fashionable 'and frequented quarters, namely, those nearest the palaces 'and the theatres. It is, in fact, now, a superb street of 'great breadth, lined on each side with trees, between 'which and the houses, gravelled walks have been made for 'the foot passengers. The general effect here is very 'fine. The eye cannot reach to any termination of the 'Boulevarde; and in the distance, the trees according to

'the laws of perspective, appear to unite their branches in 'an arch, overshadowing with their foliage the hurrying 'groupes of men, and women, and horses, and carts, and 'carriages, that are perpetually streaming to and fro be-'neath. By moonlight this forms a very grand picture, 'and suggests a confession, that London has nothing so fine 'in this way.

'The best streets of the English metropolis, owe their 'beauty, in our estimation, to their possessing those quali-'ties that raise ideas of opulence, comfort, reasonableness, 'and general utility: the Parisian Boulevarde is interesting 'in strong contrasts, picturesque in inconsistencies, grand 'in size, and overpowering through animation. The houses 'rise to twice the height of ours; they are of stone, and 'their architecture is generally elaborate. There appear 'here no signs of building rows by contract with the 'brick-layers, nor any necessity for prescribing by a law, 'what shall be the thickness of a party wall. Turn your 'eyes whichsoever way you will, they are met by broad 'fronts, decorated with frieses, cornices, pillars, pilasters, 'and balconies, and rising to a height that to a stranger 'seems stupendous. The chimneys, as the end of a mass 'of buildings presents itself, seem clustered turrets and 'battlements. The streets that open from the Boulevarde, 'appear to dart into a peopled and swarming confusion and 'uncertainty; they promise, as it were, to lead to some-'thing which cannot be foretold from their entrance, instead 'of being, what all the principal streets are in London, self-'intimators, that they are lines of receptacles for trade and pro-'perty, and regular domestick life. This character of the 'French streets arises from their narrowness, as contrasted 'with the height of the massive houses on each side, and other 'assemblages together of features, which, in England, are 'seldom or never seen near each other. Thus, a grand 'gateway would prepare the English visiter for the mansion 'of a family of rank, were it not that the court to which it 'leads, is filled with litter and dirt, that the doors are open 'and filthy, and the persons who appear around them, ill-'dressed and in every way unsuitable. Has the house, then, 'been deserted by its original magnificence, and fallen, in a 'ruined state, into the possession of the needy, who herd in 'its dilapidated rooms? No, not so exactly; for a carriage 'waits to receive the inmate of the first floor,—a Marquis in

'an old coat, silk stockings, and a cross;—a cabriolet, (or one 'horse chaise) is in attendance for the occupier of the se- 'cond,—a Colonel in a coloured waistcoat and a regimental 'coat;—from the third, a person walks down in non-descript 'attire, which, however, indicates him to belong mostly to 'the military class, although, perhaps, at that moment, neither 'his profession nor his rank could be very easily defined;— 'a milliner, with a band-box, trips from the fourth,—and 'some miserable dependant on the chances of the day, de- 'scends from the fifth.'

'Pursuing our walk to the first object of a stranger's in- 'terest and curiosity, the palaces of the Louvre and the 'Tuilleries, we arrive, by going along the wall of the latter, 'at the Place Louis Quinze, to which I would advise every 'traveller to make his way at once, avoiding any earlier 'view of the palaces, that he may be struck by a most ex- 'traordinary burst of sumptuous decoration, combining the 'beauties and magnificence of architecture, sculpture, and 'gardening, and forming an almost overpowering *coup d'œil.* 'The Place Louis Quinze is a large open circular space, 'paved with great neatness, which interposes between the 'garden of the Tuilleries, and the plantation of the Champs 'Elysées. The central avenues of both these run into 'opposite sides of this place. Its back is formed by the 'dashing colonnade of the Garde Meuble, whose architect, 'Gabriel, had in view, it is said, to rival Perrault's famous 'colonnade of the Louvre. In front is the Pont Louis 'Seize, one of the finest in Paris, with the elegant face of 'the Palais Bourbon elevated beyond it, and looking towards 'you in calm grandeur and well-proportioned beauty; 'its style of architecture being that which is well described 'by Dryden;—

"And all below is strength, and all above is grace."

'A line of elegant building runs down from this Palace 'along the river Seine, of which the Hotel de Salm, lately 'the Palace de la Legion d'Honneur, is partly seen. The 'huge gilded dome of the Invalids rises behind, and on the 'other side, the clustered houses and towers of the most 'peopled parts of Paris, form themselves into castellated 'masses.

'The spectator after the confusion of his first admiration 'is over, will find the spot well calculated for minute ex- 'amination. A broad gravelled alley leads down to the 'palace of the Tuilleries, through a large and gorgeous gar- 'den, laid out according to the French taste,—full of par- 'terres, and basins, and statues,—bas-reliefs, urns, and 'whatever is entitled *vertû*,—straight walks and tricks in 'water. The front of this residence of the monarchs of 'France, which has been the scene of so many interesting 'events, and which still bears the marks of the cannon balls 'of the memorable 10th of August, extends its enormous 'length completely across the ground, and presents to the 'eye, through the thin taper trees, a broken mass of small 'windows, unequal stories, frittered compartments, petty 'pilasters, and all that may be termed the freaks and nick- 'nacks of architecture. Flitting forms of gay promenaders, 'sidle and shift among the branches, and rows of readers of 'newspapers, seated on hired chairs, keep their places 'among the marble Atalantas, Apollos, Daphnes, and 'Satyrs.

'Two grand winged horses, by Coizevoix, give grace 'and nobleness to the gate which opens from this garden 'into the Place Louis Quinze; and, immediately opposite, 'the entrance to the Champs Elysées is dignified and 'adorned by two fine groupes of horses in marble by N. 'Couston, which were brought here when Marly was dis- 'mantled by the Revolutionists. It is now that the Eng- 'lishman of taste and sensibility begins to feel the impres- 'sion, novel to him, which the sublime productions of sculp- 'ture occasion, when interspersed throughout the publick 'situations of a city,—mingling the enthusiastick admiration 'excited by fine art, with the sober and common reflections 'suggested by publick views. It is now he begins to have 'a clearer notion, a more lively sense than he ever before 'experienced, of the effulgence of those ancient days, when 'the girls of Athens, carrying water on their heads in ele- 'gant vases, from the fountains to their homes, ascended 'magnificent flights of white marble steps, with the stupen- 'dous symmetry of the Parthenon rising before them, and 'saw there, and on every side, a vast and silent congrega- 'tion of the forms of colossal and superhuman beauty, 'fraught with the soul of poetry. Paris is still far from 'equalling Athens; but it gives an idea of what the glories

'of the latter were,—and this is more than can be said for 'London.'

We have selected the following remarks on the system of Buonaparte, as containing many spirited and just observations. The harsh terms he makes use of, brought to our minds an expression in a letter, that has lately appeared in the newspapers, from an eminent personage, now in retirement, in which he speaks of Buonaparte's "*improper* conduct." Now it can easily be conceived, that a superiour mind should be unwilling to make use of harsh epithets in speaking of fallen grandeur, or adopt that railing, *poissarde* style, which the indignation of mankind has naturally led them into using. In this case, why qualify his "conduct" at all? If an epithet was to be added, we invoke the manes of Johnson, Sheridan, Perry and the rest, to say if there was no other term mores uitable. It reminds us of a person who remarked, that his conduct in burning American ships and confiscating American property, in shooting the Duke D'Enghein, in refusing to allow the Duke of Brunswick to be buried with his ancestors, in the invasion of Spain, and the kidnapping of Ferdinand, had been extremely *indelicate*.

'From all I have said of the French character and con-
'dition, it will be seen that I have the worst idea of their so-
'cial system, as it is at present constituted. It seems to me to
'be without foundation or compactness.—There are no ge-
'nerally recognized principles in the public mind,—there
'are no great bodies to give gravity, and steadiness, and
'impetus to the state,—there are no respected names in
'France to lead opinion, to collect the national strength un-
'der legitimate banners in behalf of honourable purposes.
'There is, to be sure, much scattered talent and individual
'enjoyment, and there are the principal materials of great-
'ness to be found amongst this most singular people,—but
'they are loose, floating, and unarranged. This, it will be
'observed, is conceding them the possession of valuable
'capacities; but, whatever may be the final result, their
'vanity, which has been the chief cause of the calamities
'they have suffered themselves, and of those they have in-
'flicted on all around them, is at present unsupported by
'their condition. From the revolution they might have de-
'rived the greatest benefits: it broke up what depressed

'and restrained the national energies, it gave play to the 'national circulations,—it braced the public nerves, and 'put animating objects in the public view. But their vanity 'made them the dupes of a cold and crafty tyrant, who has 'utterly demoralized them, and who, by addressing himself 'exclusively to their besetting faults, has increased them 'tenfold.

'The imperial influence raised itself on the frailties of 'the French character, as displayed under the sway of the 'old race of Kings. Its language was that of bombast and 'falsehood,—it flattered the conceitedness, that it might 'make a prey of the rights of the people,—it corrupted 'their hearts that it might employ their hands,—and taught 'them to look, as before, to the magnificence of the throne, 'as a sufficient compensation for all they lost of respecta- 'bility as subjects, and for all they violated of good faith 'towards the community of mankind.

'The profligate system of Buonaparte required instru- 'ments after its own character; and, with unexampled abi- 'lity and villainy, he fashioned the people to suit his views. 'The youth of France have been trained up in his schools, 'and he has thus left them fit only for his purposes. The 'great interest of France, as he has left it, is the military 'interest, and this is thwarted and injured by every mea- 'sure that tends to promote the peace and substantial im- 'provement of humanity. The air of the streets and pub- 'lic places of Paris is sufficient to impress this truth with 'a melancholy force, and to inspire fears of future distur- 'bances. Walking one day in the Jardin des Plantes, I 'fell into conversation with a young Frenchman: his friends 'had destined him for the medical profession, but the con- 'scription had seized him at an early age, and dragged him 'from his studies,—and now the peace had left him, at 'twenty-five, ignorant and unprovided. He spoke of the 'Bourbons with bitterness, and of Buonaparte with zealous 'attachment. The family to which he belonged, having 'been crossed in their original intentions as to his destina- 'tion, united their feelings with his, and saw him, with 'regret, deprived of opportunities of thriving in the way of 'life to which he had been devoted.

'Speaking from what I observed myself, I would say, that 'the largest part of the mass of public opinion in France 'was, from one cause or other, in favour of Buonaparte.

'This appeared to me certain, and it was equally so, that 'this tendency of opinion existed in utter independence of 'honour and principle, or rather in direct contradiction to 'both. They would confess his worst faults, and specify 'actions which he had committed, for which he merited 'their detestation; after which they would add,—"Ah, 'but he was a great man!" Their affections were his. If 'ever the French have shewn constancy, it has been in 'favour of Buonaparte. He was evidently best adapted 'to their dispositions. It is all nonsense, that we have 'heard, about their groaning under him. He gave their 'vanity objects and gratifications: he made themselves and 'others believe in the glory of the French nation,—he 'brought them pictures, he built them palaces, he talked to 'them about destiny, and France, and empire, all in a 'breath. This is the system of management which is sure 'to be successful with the people of whom I am writing, 'and by these means popularity may be enjoyed, while 'perfidy, violence, and cruelty, destroy the public reputa-'tion, and the most valuable public properties.

'The conscription was not considered in France, as so 'heavy an evil as we have been in the habit of conceiving 'it, with our English notions. In the first place, the French 'evidently want deep domestic feeling: a violent burst of 'grief, succeeded in a few days by a violent burst of 'laughter, is all that can be expected from a people whose 'domestic economy is of the nature I have described. 'Home is the only nurse for the heart; and home is disre-'garded in Paris. In the next place, the habits and views 'of this people are military: parents have been in the cus-'tom of looking to the army as affording a provision for 'their sons, and they seemed to me rather to grieve than 'rejoice that they had got them back. The great object 'of their exertions was to procure them new appointments, 'which would again remove them from their families.

'The capacities of the French nation, however, I repeat, 'are great.—The advantages of what is called a common 'education, are universally diffused; and a taste for reading, 'for accomplishment, for all the embellishments of existence, 'is a general characteristic. The peasants have it,—and 'in almost as high a degree as the most cultivated persons. 'The poorer orders, as I have already observed, are polished 'far beyond the corresponding classes in England, and the 'effect of their behaviour is extremely pleasing. One is

'chiefly surprised by the propriety of their mode of speaking: the ceremonies of courtesy, and the idiomatic phrases 'of politeness, proceeding from milk-women and carmen to 'each other, rather amaze an Englishman. The lowest 'persons touch their hats to each other in the streets. 'Two men, whom I observed playing at piquet in an open vegetable shop, deported themselves towards each other with 'all the punctilio of two gentlemen of fashion. Their language 'too, frequently surprises you, as elevated far beyond their 'station. A washerwoman, describing a hot foggy day, 'said,—"*the fog poured down like the breath of a flame!*" 'The keeper of the Temple, speaking of some rough stones 'which Buonaparte had ordered to be brought there from 'Fontainbleau, said,—"*it is the chisel of many a day, that 'has engraven those marks.*" Walking along the quay one 'morning, I heard a woman who sold the crockery-ware 'that was displayed on the ground, instructing her daughter 'in the social duties of life. The practical part of her lesson was a caution not to encroach, as the girl had been 'doing with her cups and saucers, on her neighbour, a bookseller, whose volumes were also on the ground. "The 'great art of life, *ma fille*," said she, "is to do as much 'good for yourself as possible, provided you do no harm to 'your neighbour."

'Yet even with regard to the common knowledge, which 'the common affairs of life require, it will be found, on a 'close observation, that they are wonderfully more uninformed than the brisk adroitness of their manners would 'at first lead you to imagine. It is very possible that you 'may see the hostess of a country inn, seated under the 'vine at her door, reading Voltaire's Henriade, yet the 'same woman will not be able to take twelve sous from a 'thirty sous piece, and return you the change. The middle 'and lower orders of Paris, are in the lowest state of ignorance, as to actual facts and sound opinions. They know 'nothing of what passes beyond the observation of their 'eyes, and may easily be deceived as to that. Their 'judgments are weak, in proportion as their impressions 'are lively. They may be induced to believe any thing that 'is monstrous, and thus it is easy to lead them to commit 'all sorts of monstrosities. It was in this way that the 'atrocities of the revolution were perpetrated. No story 'was too absurd to be credited by the people,—and each new

'day, brought, in the shape of a ridiculous lie, an inducement to some horrible enormity. It is easy to see with 'what facility a people, thus distinguished by susceptibility 'and ignorance, may be duped into the extravagancies and 'errors which stain the modern history of France. Their 'vivacity is but the liveliness of credulous vanity, almost 'always exercising itself in hostility to duties and truths. 'A Frenchman will credit whatever you please to tell him, 'and commit whatever you please to direct, provided you 'in some measure connect your story and your command 'with the idea in his mind, that France is the only country 'worth naming in the world, and that he is, or may become, 'one of the most distinguished Frenchmen. A Parisian 'shopkeeper is likely enough to ask, whether in England 'we are not accustomed to have boxing matches in our 'drawing-rooms, and, in the same breath, descant on the 'glories of David's last picture, and the *scarcely inferiour* 'excellence of Raphael's Transfiguration.

'The standard then of manners, is high in France,—and 'the standard of their conversation is still higher,—but, in 'the substantials of knowledge and conduct, they are below 'both these. Further, their accomplishments and attainments are all carefully and exclusively adapted to have an 'effect on the society of the day and place,—which is 'society in its most contracted sense—this is their main, or 'rather their *only* object, and it is inconsistent with what is 'most worthy of present respect, to say nothing of what 'is most likely to secure the respect of futurity.

'But a people with these lively notions, full of the amour 'propre, and whose multitudes catch inspiration from 'objects that, in other countries, have no influence but on a 'select few, cannot but form a nation of rapidity in action, 'of splendid appearances, of interest and of celebrity. And, 'under a good government,—one which should have no interest in flattering their faults,—and under which the expression of truth might be permitted to go forth, at freedom to detect vanities and imperfections wherever they 'lurk,—whether in politics, in manners, in art, or in literature,—they would bid fair to attain a pitch formidable to 'all competitors. Hitherto, however, they have but astounded Europe to their own shame and calamity. They 'are lamentably ignorant of what I may call the A, B, C, 'of moral rectitude. They have not fixed in their minds

'the few elementary principles, to which every action or 'proposal might be at once referred, as to a certain test 'of its propriety. I have usually found that the most ab- 'rupt, and even violent contradictions, were followed, in the 'course of the stream of conversation, by an unguarded 'admission of facts, which proved all that had been origi- 'nally denied. Against the summing up, if they dislike its 'tendency, they will stoutly protest, but will readily admit, 'and even furnish particular pieces of evidence, that lead to 'an unfavourable verdict. This inconsistency arises from 'a looseness of knowledge, and slightness of feeling as to 'right and wrong:—the cardinal points of morality are not 'marked on their minds to guide their course. For want 'of these, they often glory in their shame, and bewilder 'themselves and others by admiring inconsistently, resent- 'ing wrongfully, and submitting abjectly.'

Some of his observations on the women of France, are just, and discover a keen observer; others border a little on vulgar belief—the boudoir being devoted to voluptuousness and sacred against the intrusion of the husband, are quite in this style. The *boudoir*, is a very small apartment belonging to every extensive suite of rooms. It is generally fitted up with exquisite taste and elegance, and may sometimes serve for voluptuous purposes, as well as a bed-chamber; but it is generally a place where a lady receives two or three confidential friends, where they may feel more snug and comfortable, as we should say, than in a large apartment. The author has introduced one or two particular anecdotes to draw from them general inferences, but this is a dangerous practice. Without quoting those we refer to, we may exemplify this, by one we heard from good authority. Lady ——— the wife of a British Minister, who resided at the Court of Versailles previous to the revolution, had a large family of ten fine children. The Queen had heard so much of them, that she requested her to bring them all to the palace, that she might see them. She was flattered by this wish of the Queen, and on the appointed time went accompanied by them all, with bright eyes, ruddy cheeks, and curling hair, like a whole shop window of dolls. Thus attended, her heart filled with very pardonable maternal vanity; her spirits were a little damped, on hearing, as she passed through the Ladies of Honour,

one of them in a disdainful whisper exclaim *O! comme c'est cochon d'avoir tant d'enfans!* It is possible that this little ebullition of envy, might have been characteristick of the ladies about the Court, but it would have been hard to have cited it, as a proof that all the women of France, thought it disreputable to have a large family of children.

'The air of the French females, it must be acknowledged, is full of a certain species of witchery; but it is strongly marked by mannerism. Its secret seems to lie in making the external woman exclusively display the peculiarities of her sex; her looks, her turns, her whole manner of speaking and acting is sexual. The distinction between male and female is never for a moment lost sight of by either. In England it frequently happens, that a gentleman for some time addresses a lady in a way, that would leave a person who should only hear the observations, but not see to whom they were directed, perfectly ignorant whether the conversation were held with a man or a woman. But this could scarcely ever happen in France; the *tourneur* of the phrase, when a woman is spoken to, cannot be mistaken: it is modelled according to her peculiar instincts, charms, and weaknesses, and so is the carriage of him who speaks to her. In this consists the politeness of the French to the softer sex, of which they boast; but the question is, whether it does not imply a stooping to, instead of a raising towards? Can women have any thing given them in the shape of deference that can atone for the loss of equality? Is it humouring they are fond of? We humour a child and spoil it by so doing; we humour the sick and the weak; we humour eccentricity and folly; but we never humour sound sense and propriety. The first instance of humouring had very unlucky consequences.

> "Wouldst thou had hearkened to my words, and staid
> "With me, as I besought thee, when that strange
> "Desire of wandering this unhappy morn,
> "I know not whence, possess'd thee; we had then
> "Remain'd still happy; not, as now, despoil'd
> "Of all our good; shamed, naked, miserable."
>
> *Paradise Lost*, book IX.

'The women of Paris are entirely creatures of management and manner:—the chief business of society is left to them to transact;—a tradesman entrusts the concerns

'of his shop to his wife,—a gentleman asks no guests to his 'house but with her permission. There is every where an 'affectation of placing every thing at the discretion and dis-'posal of the females,—but it is still evident, that this em-'pire is granted to their weakness, and they are thus taught 'to make a parade of their sexual peculiarities, that they 'may gain pampering and indulgence at the expense of their 'respectability. They are raised above their helpmates, 'as men and women raise children on high chairs, and help 'the young folks first to pudding. In this very preference 'there is an insult; but there is worse degradation in the 'employment to which they are put. They are taught to 'make the most of their influence as women, in order to 'gain for themselves and those connected with them, the 'mercenary ends which arise out of the competitions, haz-'ards, desires, and necessities of daily life. The bad effect 'of this on the delicacy of their minds, requires no expo-'sure, and their artificial, active, adroit, and intriguing ha-'bits, have, in fact, given to their physiognomies and man-'ner, an acute, watching, attacking sort of air, which, how-'ever powerful it may be in its way, is not the power which 'most properly belongs to woman, or that most exquisitely 'becomes her in its exercise.

'The system of educating and training young women in 'France, is open to the most serious objections. Girls, in 'respectable life, are placed, as they grow up, under a strict 'surveillance: they are never entrusted beyond the eye of 'the mother or governess. If they are permitted to pay a 'visit to a female friend of the family, the hostess is sensi-'ble she incurs the heaviest responsibility. The youthful 'guest must not sleep beyond the immediate superinten-'dance of her entertainer; a bed is made up for her in the 'cabinet of the lady of the house. She must not dance but 'with the partner selected by her friends; she must not sit 'down with her partner after she has danced:—in short, 'strictness and guardianship are the substitutes for forma-'tion of character, and, without paying any regard to the 'mind, the body is pampered and preserved for the accom-'plishment of the future views of a mercenary and cold au-'thority, that looks but to sordid interests, and is careless 'of virtue and of happiness.

'This degrading system of watch and ward, is absolutely 'necessary according to the habits of Paris, for they are

'directly levelled against whatever would warrant confi-
'dence, in the sense of integrity and honour in the young
'female mind. Mothers will not, indeed, instruct their
'daughters to intrigue after they are married,—and they
'will not, probably, talk of their own licentious indulgences
'before their daughters; but their conversation with their
'intimates, in the hearing of their children, is sufficiently
'instructive, that connubial constancy is in little estimation,
'and less practice. Such a lady, they will say, speaking
'of one who has a husband and children, is not now on terms
'with *that* gentleman—*that* affair is over long ago:—it is
'now Monsieur ——

'These breaches of nuptial fidelity, it is affirmed, are less
'universal at present than they were before the revolution;
'but, I believe, it is doing no injustice to the state of French
'morals to say, that they now constitute the majority of ca-
'ses of conduct after wedlock in the genteel circles of Par-
'is:—before the revolution a case of post-nuptial chastity
'in these circles was neither known nor expected. At pre-
'sent, the indulgence is managed with no needless display
'of indecency; but it is perfectly well understood, both by
'the husband and society, and the indulging party is not
'severely treated by either.

'It is not thought an insult, in Paris, if a man, sitting
'down by a married lady, immediately commences making
'love to her. His language is divested of all unnecessary
'explicitness; but it has a sufficiently palpable tendency to
'the last favour that a woman can grant. It is, in fact, a
'mere matter of course almost, to address a French married
'lady in those terms of gallantry, which, in England, are
'employed to females whose persons are still disposable.
'The woman to whom they are directed may not be inclin-
'ed to listen to them,—she may be engaged at the moment,
'or the application may be disagreeable;—but she never
'thinks of resenting the application as offensive.—In short,
'a husband here cannot rationally calculate on his wife's
'fidelity, and I believe, very seldom does. If the parties,
'*after* marriage, feel themselves very much attached to
'each other, their reciprocal fidelity is secured by a mutu-
'al pledge on honour, which is added to the compact made
'at the altar, as an extra obligation, not necessarily includ-
'ed in the original engagement.

'In Paris, it is the regular business of parents to marry 'their children; the idea of the latter conducting so serious 'an affair for themselves, would shock every father and 'and mother in that capital. For this purpose, they an- 'nounce every where what portion they can afford to their 'son or daughter, and, without hesitation, enquire of all 'persons whom they know, that have progeny of which a 'match may be made, what portions they intend to give. 'The most incessant attention is given to this grand affair, 'and a Parisian mother devotes a degree of industry, dex- 'terity, and frequently artifice, to effect the settlement of 'her children in the world, which no woman but a French 'woman could display, and which reflect much credit on 'her talents, although the view taken of the real interests of 'those for whom she concerns herself is far from a judicious 'one.

'The sole object to which they direct their efforts is, 'to accomplish a match which may be advantageous to their 'child in worldly matters—namely, in point of fortune or 'connections. As these are things which have no sort of 'connection with inclination on either side, it sometimes 'happens that a marriage is agreed upon between the pa- 'rents, for some years before the girl's age will permit it to 'be consummated. A young lady of the highest rank, 'whose nuptials took place when I was in Paris, had been 'accustomed to say to her governess, who was an English- 'woman,—"They tell me I am to be married at fifteen: I 'wish I knew to whom;—I dare say I shall like him,—don't 'you think I shall?" Girlish feeling prompts this antici- 'pation of satisfaction,—the awful contract for life is hailed 'for no better reason than that it affords a prospect of es- 'caping from the irksome restraints that have been alrea- 'dy described, the commands of the parents are signified 'and obeyed, and two persons come together whom no im- 'pulse of their own has brought together, who can have no 'well founded confidence in each other, and whose minds 'are prepared before hand to give ready access to levity 'and inordinate desires.

'After marriage, the wife, young, and uninstructed in mo- 'rals and duties, is at once emancipated from a state of 'severe restraint, and plunged into one of licentious liberty 'and unnatural power,—of which a few of the features are, 'a luxurious Boudoir, full of couches and statues—separate

'bed rooms,—a lover in every visitor, and the customs of 'society opposed to cruelty to lovers. It is needless to 'deduce consequences from these,—their existence is suffi-'ciently informing.

'The system of married life in France, is one by which 'the lady enjoys a sort of artificial authority and influence, 'raising her to appearance much above the claims of her 'sex and relationship, but existing at the expense of that 'cordial communication and heartfelt, disinterested defer-'ence, which distinguish unions founded on a more judi-'cious basis than that which I have been describing. She 'is installed in various prerogatives that look flattering 'and desirable, but they are chiefly favourable to the dis-'charge of functions, from which a true respect for her sex, 'cherished by the men, would entirely preserve her, and 'the enjoyment of gratifications which a proper self-re-'spect on her own part would prohibit her from partaking.

'The chief emblem and representation of this condition 'of married women, is the Boudoir. It is a temple of sepa-'ration and luxury. It belongs to the wife exclusively; 'the husband has neither property in it, nor power over it. 'If she were suspected of having a lover concealed within 'its mysterious enclosure, that enclosure, nevertheless, 'must not be violated. What I mean is, that such is the 'good manners in France, and the man who disregards it is 'esteemed a brute,—an object of the general dislike and 'disgust of both sexes. The Boudoir is the apartment, as 'I have before observed, that is most commonly complete 'in its elegance. The nursery for the children, in the hou-'ses of families of rank, contrary to the custom in England, 'is neglected, and crammed into some inconvenient corner; 'but the Boudoir for the mother, is rich in couches, in sta-'tues, in paintings, and flowers. It is a retreat in which 'Venus might be happy to recline, and is, in every respect, 'calculated to inspire the sentiments which belong to the 'devotion in which that goddess delights.

'One effect of what I have been describing is, that, 'amidst this general profligacy, the grosser features of 'vice are not frequently seen. A woman who swerves 'from her sex's point of honour in England, is aware that 'she has committed an unpardonable offence, and the coarse-'ness of depravity ensues from the very consciousness of 'the enormity of her crime. But it is very different in

'France. A female there who has committed adultery, 'regards herself, and is regarded by others, as not more 'culpable than if she were a little too extravagant, or too 'addicted to play, or rather fond of going from home. 'Her mind, therefore, experiences little, if any alteration, 'in consequence of the violation of her person: it is but 'little, or rather not at all, worse than it was before. It 'must be admitted, that this is a better state of disposition 'and feeling, than usually exists in union with a disregard 'of chastity in England, but how worthless is it as a gene- 'ral standard of the female heart,—and is it not infinitely 'better to meet with instances of gross depravity, as dis- 'gusting exceptions to the general purity, than to find puri- 'ty no where, and every where a dissoluteness, insulting 'and confounding virtue by assuming the air of decency?

We close our extracts with the letter from an Irishman of distinction, published in the Morning Chronicle, which as was said of it, "was evidently the picture of one extreme, drawn by a masterly but incontinent hand." It is in reality an extravagant caricature in some parts, yet drawn with great spirit. We hope the author's ideas on spitting, may meet the sight of some of the class in our country, where this practice of expectoration is disgustingly common. Some of those promising young men, who think it an accomplishment to spit like a boatswain or a groom, may receive a salutary hint from it.

'I fear war will soon unfold her tattered banners on the 'continent. This poor country is in a deplorable state—a 'ruined noblesse—a famished clergy—a state of smothered 'war between the upstarts and the restored—their finances 'most distressed—the military spirit divided—the most op- 'posite opinions as to the lasting of the present form of 'things—every thing unhinged—yet I really sympathize 'with this worried, amiable, and perhaps contemptible peo- 'ple; so full of talent and vice—so frivolous, so inconstant 'and prone to change—so ferocious too in their fickleness; 'about six revolutions within twenty years, and as fresh as 'ever for a new dance.

'These strange vicissitudes of man draw tears, but they 'also teach wisdom. I never found my mind so completely 'a magick lantern—such a rapid succession of disjointed

'images—the past, the present, the future possibly. One 'ought not to be hasty in taking up bad impressions, and I 'need not say that three weeks can give but little room 'for observation; but from what I do see and learn from 'others, who have seen long and deeply, I have conceived 'the worst idea of *social Paris.*

'Every thing on the surface is horrible; beastlinesses, 'which with us do not exist. They actually seem, in talk 'and practice, to cultivate a familiarity with nastiness. In 'every publick place they are spitting on your shoes, in 'your plate, almost in your mouth. Such community of 'secretions is scarcely to be borne; then the contrast 'makes it worse, gaudiness more striking by filth: the 'splendid palace for the ruler, the hovel and the sink for 'the ruled; the fine box for the despot, the pigeon holes 'for the people! And it strikes me with sadness, that the 'women can be little more than the figurantes, receiving 'a mock reverence merely to carry on the drama; but 'neither cherished nor respected. How vile the feeling 'and the taste that can degrade them from being the real 'directors and mistresses of man, to be the mere soubrettes 'of society, gilded and smart, and dexterous and vicious. 'Even before the Revolution, manners were bad enough, 'but many causes since have rubbed off the gilding. The 'exile of the nobles, the succession of low men to power; 'and more than all, the elevation of plebeian soldiers to high 'rank, promoting, of course, their trulls to a station where 'manners and morals were under their influence; and this 'added to the horrible example set by Buonaparte himself 'in his own interiour. Add to this, what must have sent 'down the contagion to the still lower orders—the *conscrip-* 'tion—the wretched men, marrying without preference, 'merely to avoid the army, and then running into that army 'to escape their ill chosen partners. All these causes 'must have conspired to make a frightful carnage in man- 'ners and morals too. In short, I am persuaded, that a 'single monster has done more to demoralize and uncivilize 'this country, than a century can repair.

We cannot refrain from adding a few words on the state of France. One consoling reflection may be drawn from it, which is the superiority of a free government to a despotism. France, with her vast power, her talents and population, and at one period she controlled all that Europe possessed

of both, was beaten at last, by a population of half the number, distracted by parties, and torn with civil dissensions. That this was owing to the spirit of freedom in that country, and the energy it created, there can be no doubt. This invaluable principle France seems incapable of possessing, and whatever is the name of the Sovereign, Director, Emperour or King, the government is paramount, and admits of no remonstrance or discussion.

The misfortunes of France furnish the grandest political moral, that history can shew. They have accumulated to an equal amount with her usurpations, her injustice and violence. In the infliction of retribution nothing was wanting; the action and the scenes were even highly picturesque and dramatick. Her sufferings are indeed great; so much blood, so much treasure, and so much glory wasted. And when she is devastated, overthrown, her territory divided—her enemies, and who can blame a just vengeance, demand from her the restoration of the plunder she had taken. Pictures and statues and medals might be restored; but the wealth, the spoils of so many nations, which with furious cries demanded its return—where was it? not in France, but, exploded, gone along with all her own substance, every livre that the most grinding finance could extort or anticipate, all had been sunk in the infernal vortex of war; converted into gunpowder, and blown into air.

In this state of misery, she sees her enemies triumphant on every point. England, after talking so feelingly, and so loudly about the ambition of France, as if she had none herself; after having in successful warfare drawn such vast sums from the capture and ruin of French, Dutch, and Spanish commerce, winds up with possessing all India, the finest colonies in the West-Indies; and not content with Malta in the Mediterranean, takes the Greek islands under her protection. The ambition of France has been every where defeated, the ambition of England every where triumphant. Without colonies, without commerce, how is she to employ the dangerous, embittered, military spirits, that are spread over her territory. She is deprived of her former colonies, and prohibited forming new ones; and yet the English travellers complain, that these men are turbulent, gloomy and ferocious. This is indeed realizing Peter Pindar's story of *bienseance*.

What are we to hope for France? she seems destined to the most wretched extremes. We know not where to sympa-

thise with her, there appears no medium. If we curse the police, the conscription, the brutal, exclusive love of war in Buonaparte; is there no refuge, but in a government which commences its administration by suffering the massacre of Protestants, vowing silver images to the Virgin, and refusing burial to an actress?—The continuance of such a state of things is impossible! what the change will be, it is in vain to predict.

France may be considered in a state of permanent decline; perhaps the climax of her prosperity was about the middle of the last century. It is however a very difficult thing for contemporaries to designate epochs of this kind; in an oak tree, the branches and the trunk may exhibit the signs of vigour long after the heart is decayed. Some have even doubted whether the improvement in certain modern arts and sciences might not prevent the decline of modern nations. But the tendency to decay is inevitable in every thing of human construction. We have living examples of this; the Italian states, which grew up from the roots of the Roman empire, were mere shrubs, and never produced a single stock of any vigour; and they are declined from what they were; the mechanical progress of decay is even visible to the eye; they are now only the provinces, more or less dependent on the great powers of Europe. Spain too is a most remarkable instance, she is approaching the last stages of decay. A revolution in an old state like France, cannot restore youth; it is a crisis, that in proportion to its violence will advance decrepitude. She may linger on for some ages, and have some bright moments; so it was with the Roman empire in the first centuries of our era. France has lost her colonies, her commercial riches, a large part of her accumulation of permanent wealth; her army is disorganized, her marine ruined, her finances embarrassed; it will take three geuerations to replace her population in a natural state; still worse than all these, her ancient civil and religious institutions subverted from their very foundations; it is imposible to replace them; imperfect and even vicious as they were, they yet formed some substitute for the more perfect organization of free governments, which place so many gradations between the sovereign and the people, at once the organs, the checks, the supports of both: these France has lost, and the loss is irretrievable; she is then doomed to a despotism, and the only hope she can have of internal security, is, in the energy of this depotism.

MISCELLANEOUS AND LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

We understand, that there has lately been received at Philadelphia, a collection of very fine instruments, destined for the survey of the coast of the United States, and the determination of the lengths of different degrees of the meridian, comprehended within our territorial limits. Among these instruments are two astronomical clocks, two transit instruments of five feet each, and two sets of achromatick telescopes of three each, from six to four feet in length. These are intended for fixed observations, which according to the plan proposed were to be placed near the extreme parts of the coast.

The other instruments are to be used on the survey; several of them may also be used to good purpose in an observatory. They consist principally of the following, viz. six box and two pocket chronometers, one grand theodolite of two feet diameter, two theodolites of one foot each, two double repeating circles of eighteen inches, and six reflecting ones of ten inches diameter; a part with stands, spirit levels, and artificial harizons, two surveying theodolites, two surveying compasses, two plane tables, six mountain barometers, and a very ingenious apparatus for measuring a base line with the utmost exactness, together with the standard English and French measures.

The above instruments are pronounced to be of the best construction, and of admirable workmanship: They were made by the first artists in London, under the immediate direction and superintendance of Mr. Hasler, a native of Switzerland, and some time since a professor in the United States Military Academy at West Point. Many of the instruments contain valuable improvements, that were suggested by this very ingenious and learned gentleman. As a collection, they are thought to be very complete, and not inferiour, in any respect, to the best that have been used in the great national surveys of Europe.

We are glad to see so good a beginning made in a work, that cannot fail to be particularly interesting to the science, as well as to the commerce of our country; and it gives us pleasure to learn, that it is likely to be committed to the care of one, who in the opinion of the best judges, possesses not only the theoretical knowledge and practical skill, but the ardour and perseverance also, which are necessary to so difficult and arduous an undertaking.

Mr. John Souter, bookseller, Pater Noster Row, London, publisher of the Monthly Magazine, the London Medical and Physical Journal, has announced his intention of becoming a general agent for American books and periodical publications.

DISCOVERY OF LATIN WRITINGS.

Augsburg, Nov. 2.

The indefatigable abbot ANGELO MAJO, one of the keepers of the Ambrosian library at Milan, has discovered the works of an ancient author, of whom we know nothing but his name and a small work.

This is the works of M. CORNELIUS FRONTO, with unpublished letters of the emperours *Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius, L. Verus* and *Appian.* The publication consists of two volumes 8vo. with some copper-plates and fac similes of the M. S. of *M. Fronto,* an African by birth, the preceptor of two emperours *M. Aurelius* and *L. Verus,* and the greatest Latin orator after *Cicero;* only a small grammatical work was hitherto known, now 20 works of this remarkable author have been discovered in the Ambrosian library. There are several books of Latin and Greek letters to different emperours, &c. &c. In these volumes are inserted also three unpublished Latin letters of *Antoninus Pius,* 18 of *M. Aurelius,* 6 of *L. Verus,* one Greek letter of *Appian* the historian, and many inedited pieces of *Ennius, Plautus, Cato, Sallust,* and other ancient Romans and Greeks. The Greek pieces have a Latin translation; in short, nothing is neglected to heighten the value of this most agreeable present. No Editio princeps of any classick can be compared with it. Fifteen copies are printed in large 4to. and will be one day a great curiosity.

THE publick are hereby informed, that the Trustees and Overseers of Bowdoin College at their session in May last, passed an act to require from Students seeking admission into this College, in addition to the present requisitions for entrance into the Freshman class, an acquaintance with the *Bucolicks* or *Eclogues* and the four books of the *Georgicks of Virgil,* for the year 1816, and for 1817, in further addition, an acquaintance with *Collectanea Græca Minora of the late Professor Dalzel.*

The present requisitions are a knowledge of the four fundamental rules of Arithmetick, the Latin Grammar, the Greek Grammar, the Aeneid of Virgil, the select Orations of Cicero, the Greek Testament, together with an ability to make a Grammatical translation of English into Latin. To the last object, it is respectfully recommended, that gentlemen, who are preparing youth for college, should require of their pupils particular attention. It is likewise recommended, that the acquaintance, which students form with the Grammar both of the Latin and Greek language, should be minute and intimate.

JESSE APPLETON, *President.*

Brunswick, Dec. 15, 1815.

Our artists are continuing their labours with more ardour, since the publick attention, has been turned towards them. We have seen a landscape with cattle, in a scene of summer repose and calm, by Mr. Fisher, now in the possession of Mr. Henry Pickering, of Salem, which is a new proof of the fine talents of that artist: also, a scene of cattle and horses, with a fine and harmonious effect of colouring. Mr. Stewart Newton, has produced a picture of the scene, where Falstaff is recounting to the Prince his nocturnal combat on Gadshill, and the heroick deed he had performed. This is one of his first attempts in this way; the grouping is good, the humour and expression of the countenances, excellent: there can be no doubt that he will obtain great success in the popular department of cabinet pictures. Mr. Morse has painted a moonlight scene, which we only saw in an unfinished state, and one or two portraits for engraving. Mr. Willard has gone to Richmond, to obtain a cast from Houdon's statute of Washington, in the State House. We are extremely happy to state, that a subscription is now under way to raise a fund for an insitution, to protect our own artists, and promote the progress of the Fine Arts. We shall say more of this on a future occasion.

A shock of an earthquake was felt in the towns of Weston, Sudbury and Framingham, during the night of the 15th of February, which was calm, intensely cold, and a bright moonlight. Several fissures in the earth were seen the next day, and this same appearance has been noticed in other places at the same time, and was not owing, as was supposed by some, to the earthquake, but to the extreme cold.

An account of the District of Maine with a new map on a large scale, containing all the latest corrections, by Mr. Greenleaf, is now in train for publication. The work contains much new and interesting information respecting that important section of the country, and we hope the talents and industry of the author will be rewarded by estensive patronage.

Wells and Lilly, have just received from London, and will shortly publish, Rhoda: a Novel. By the Author of "Things by their Right Names." "Plain Sense," &c.

OBITUARY.

DEATHS AT HOME.

In New-Hampshire. In Exeter, Hon. Samuel Tenney, formerly Senator in Congress. In Seabrook, Comfort Collins, aged 105 years and 3 months, for many years much esteemed in the Society of Friends as a preacher.

In Massachusetts. In Boston, Mr. John Magner, aged 80. He had lived in this country a great many years, and accumulated a considerable property, nearly the whole of which he bequeathed to his native village in Ireland. In Braintree, Rev. Ezra Weld, senior Pastor of the Congregational Church in that town. In Barrington, Rev. Samuel Watson, aged 43; for eighteen years, minister of the Congregational Church. In Rehoboth, Hon. Stephen Bullock, aged 81—was a Member of Congressformerly, and has filled many civil offices of high respectability. In Salem, Mr. Ebenezer Beckford, aged 79, a respectable citizen.

In Rhode-Island. In North Providence, Mrs. Williams, widow of Peleg Williams, Esq. and last of the great grand children of Roger Williams of Salem, so famous in the early history of Massachusetts.

In Connecticut. In Montville, Hon. William Hillhouse, aged 88, upwards of fifty years, in succession, a member of the Connecticut Legislature.

In New-York. Ontario County, Hon. T. Hosmer, aged 70.

In Washington. Hon. Elijah Brigham, of the quinsy. A member of the House of Representatives of the United States from Massachusetts, a man whose solid and respectable character makes his loss a severe one to the State.

In Virginia. In Charlotte County, Hon. Paul Carrington, jun. aged 52. Major John Reid, Aid-de-Camp of General Jackson, whose life he was preparing to publish. He is deeply regretted, as a gallant officer and an accomplished man.

DEATHS BY VIOLENCE.

In Virginia. Mr. John Corbin, aged 20; a promising young man; died of a wound received in a duel with *a fellow-student of Carlisle College.* This, we believe, is not the first instance that has happened among students belonging to that seminary. What is the discipline of that College? In New-York, Rensalaer County, Mr. S. Peterson hung himself in a fit of insanity. In Philadelphia, Capt. John Carson, shot by Lieut. Smith, who is in confinement for trial. The Boatswain of the Congress Frigate was shot by the sentinel, in the night, at the Navy Yard, Charlestown, attempting to pass without answering, after being hailed three times. In Savannah, James Nixon, executed for murder.

DEATHS ABROAD.

In Paris. The Prince de Talmont, son-in-law of the Duke de Duras. M. Cardon de Montigny, an eminent lawyer, by suicide.

In England. Mr. Edward Post, eldest son of Professor Post, of New-York, and late a lecturer on anatomy in that city.

Lt. General Sir George Prevost, aged 49, late Governour of Canada. Vice Admiral Lechmere, aged 64. Admiral Viscount Gardner, aged 45. Admiral Dodd, aged 81. Hon. General Bennet.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

*** The Essay on the subject of a National University sent from New-Haven, came too late for this number; its political allusions are likewise so numerous and so hacknied, that we think we shall not be able to make use of it.

The meteorological tables from Cambridge and Brunswick, were duly received, but owing to an accident, we have been obliged to omit them.

We acknowledge the receipt of Mr. Drake's Picture of Cincinnati, which came too late to be noticed in the present number; we shall take it up in the next.

☞ The present number, in completing the second volume of the North American Review, terminates the labours of the editor for the first year. The circulation of the work is slowly increasing, and though the patronage of the publick is rather reluctant, yet it is sufficient to cover the expenses of publication. Believing a work of this kind, mainly devoted to our own literature and science, will be of considerable utility, he will cheerfully continue his exertions to this end; and has some reason, as there is much room, to hope for its future improvement. To those friends who have assisted him by their valuable contributions; and to those whose partiality has sometimes encouraged his efforts, he offers the most sincere thanks.

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MAR 26 1957